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SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS IN INDIA

BY

W. M. RYBURN, M.A.

CHRISTIAN HIGH SCHOOL, LARAH, PUNJAB



HUMPHREY MILFORD
OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

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INTRODUCTION

ORGANIZATION is the embodiment of a spirit and of an ideal. According to the aim that we have before us, so will be the organization of our institution. In many places in this book readers will find attitudes, relationships, and ideals emphasized. This is because I feel very strongly that such realities are the foundations on which true and right organization must be built, and that unless such attitudes, relationships, ideals, and aims are right, and infused with goodwill as well as with psychological knowledge, no organization or scheme of organization will be worth the paper on which it is written.

Organization is not primarily a matter of arrangements, time-tables, schemes of study, types of buildings, registers and curricula. It is primarily a matter of our attitude to our work and to those with whom we work. The aim of our work, and the children with whom we work, are our first considerations. Organization simply means the practical measures which we take to ensure that the system of work which we use will be of the greatest possible assistance in carrying out our aims, and of the greatest possible benefit to our children.

I have purposely used the word 'with'—'the children *with* whom we work'. A school should first and foremost be a co-operative society. This again will be found to be emphasized throughout the book ; co-operation

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between headmaster and staff, among members of the staff, between headmaster and pupils, between teachers and pupils, and between the school and parents. Our organization is a means to secure the smooth and efficient running of this co-operative society. But the greatest care should be taken to see that, as far as in us lies, none of the measures of organization we put into force shall be such as to militate in any shape or form against this spirit of co-operation or to cause us to depart from the path to our aim.

Organizing and organization are insidious things. Before we know where we are, our desire to organize and our busyness in organizing have come between us and our pupils. Immersed in schemes and circulars and papers and registration, we lose the personal touch and the personal contact which we should prize and cultivate above all else. Everyone who has anything to do with organization understands this, and probably most of us have to confess that we have allowed our organization to be too much with us, or rather that it has been given a wrong emphasis. This being immersed in details and returns to the exclusion of the personal contact and the personal touch is probably the gravest charge which can be brought against the inspectorate of today. And because of this the educational system throughout the country, and the children of the country, are suffering.

The central fact in the school is the child, and our organization must do nothing to hinder the development of the child, but, on the other hand, must help forward

This development will naturally include all parts of his personality and not simply the mental side. It will include his physical, social, moral and spiritual development as well as his mental development. For this reason those who are concerned with school organization must be concerned with all arrangements which are made to ensure the child's development in all these different directions. The school is not performing its function if it neglects any of these. The aim of the school should be to enable the individual to develop harmoniously all the elements and powers of his nature, to give him opportunity to use and sublimate all his instincts, to provide for the free expression of his interests, and to seek to inculcate an ideal which will have a controlling place in

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the pupil's life, and so harmonize his powers and instincts, and harness them for the work of pursuing that ideal. In other words, the aim before the school is to produce in its pupils the harmoniously and fully developed self, able to express itself in co-operation with others along the line of its definite interests.

It is the task of organization to make the school a microcosm where the growing child is enabled to do this, and where he has the freedom to do this for himself with necessary help and guidance. Every measure of systemization and organization that is introduced into a school should have this in view. In so far as this aim and purpose is lost sight of, in so far will organization be preventing the school from carrying out its real aim.

With the right aim and the right co-operative spirit behind the organization in a school, it is still very necessary for attention to be paid to detail. The successful organizer is one who pays attention to detail, and who, like genius, has an infinite capacity for taking pains. This does not mean to say that the organizer is to bury himself in detail, but it does mean that he has to think out ahead what is likely to happen, and has to provide for the seemingly trifling little details which will make or mar his organization. Just as the finish the carpenter puts on the table he is making, or the tailor on the dress he is making, makes all the difference to the completed job, so do careful attention to detail and careful provision for emergencies that may arise, mark the good organizer. The slap-dash man who trusts to luck and

the inspiration of the moment to pull him through will never have good organization. One detail overlooked will upset the whole time-table.

In saying this it is necessary to enter a caveat against the unnecessary multiplication of detail. While good organization depends on careful attention to detail, it does not mean that we have to create details, especially details for other people to pay attention to. This is one very general complaint that schools have against inspectors' offices. No detail should be required that is not essential, but every attention should be paid to all details which are essential. Headmaster and staff have to decide for themselves which things in their particular school are essential.

Both headmaster and staff should be constantly on the look-out for ways and means of simplification of organization. It is not always a mark of a well-organized school for it to have a great deal of organization machinery. The machinery may or may not be necessary. The important thing is to see that the organization is working smoothly and harmoniously towards the aim and purpose for which the school stands. Modification which will increase simplicity and smoothness of working while not interfering with efficiency is always to be welcomed.

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I

THE HEADMASTER

THE HEADMASTER holds the key position in a school just as the captain of a ship holds the key position on a ship. The headmaster is the co-ordinating agency which keeps the balance, and ensures the harmonious development of the whole institution. He sets the tone of the school, and is the chief force in moulding the traditions which develop as time goes on. It is essential therefore that he be not only a man of high character, but also that he be a man of faith ; faith in his vocation, faith in his pupils, faith in human nature, and faith in his staff. Perhaps no single characteristic is more important in a headmaster than the power of inspiring ; inspiring pupils to use all the opportunities provided, drawing out the best that is in them, and inspiring confidence in himself and his advice and wisdom and goodwill ; inspiring his staff with energy and life and mutual goodwill among themselves and confidence in himself as their leader.)

This confidence in the headmaster is a most necessary element in any school which wishes to have any claim to be successful. Again and again one finds a school handicapped simply because the headmaster has not been able to inspire confidence in himself and mutual good feeling among his staff. It goes without saying that a man cannot inspire confidence in himself unless he is worthy

of confidence. But even where a headmaster is personally worthy of confidence, it often happens that he fails to inspire that confidence in the minds of his staff and his pupils. Inspiring confidence is not simply a matter of being worthy of it. That, to be sure, is half the battle, but the other half has to be fought and won.

(In the first place it is necessary for a headmaster to cultivate a sympathetic imagination in his dealings with staff and pupils. On the staff of a school there are always teachers of different grades of education and attainment, of different cultural background, of different religions and of different ideals in life. The headmaster's first task is to get to know his staff. He must try to understand their social background, their educational background, and their personal history, so that he may be able sympathetically to understand their difficulties and their reactions to life and its various situations.) This does not mean that he is to hold an inquisition on each member of his staff. The knowledge that he needs cannot be gained all at once. It will be gathered as the result of a long process, and as the result of cultivating friendly relationships with each member of the staff. Naturally he will not be equally friendly with every member of the staff; some will attract him more than others. But he can maintain a friendly *attitude* towards all members of the staff so that they may feel that he is sympathetic with them and honestly tries to understand their point of view and their difficulties. It is most important that this friendly and sympathetic

attitude towards the staff should be cultivated by the headmaster.

In the second place the headmaster should see to it that the principle of co-operation runs through the whole of his dealings with his staff and, indeed, through the whole organization and working of the school. This is a corollary from the friendly attitude. The headmaster should not look on himself as an autocrat whose duty is simply to issue commands which are to be carried out by the members of the staff on the good old principle of 'Theirs not to reason why'. He is rather the leader of a group, the members of which are all working together to accomplish the same purpose. Thus he will seek the co-operation of the members of his staff rather than issue commands to them. When he thinks that changes ought to be made he will consult his staff. This consultation should be a real consultation, and not simply a matter of form where the headmaster makes a speech about what he wants to do, and makes it so clear that everybody has to agree with him, that no one ventures to express any criticism or any contrary opinion. It is not an easy matter to get true co-operation from the staff, and in most cases, for a while, members of the staff will be suspicious of a headmaster who tries to get it. Teachers are so accustomed to the autocracy of the headmaster that many are afraid to voice their real opinions. Others think it is no use doing so for no attention will be paid to what they say. Others have grown so accustomed to other people doing their thinking for

them that they have lost the capacity to think for themselves.

But in spite of difficulties the headmaster should aim at a real co-operation where the opinions and views of all shall be taken into account, and where discussions in connexion with the running and welfare of the school will result in a real pooling of opinion and experience. There will be discussions in which all will have a real share, and which will not be merely the superimposed opinion of one man. This means, of course, that the headmaster must lay aside all autocratic methods of managing his school and dealing with his staff. Real co-operation and autocracy cannot work in harness together. If a school is to be really successful, co-operation must oust autocracy.

The question will perhaps be raised, 'What is the headmaster to do if he is very anxious to bring in some innovation which he is sure will be for the good of the school, but whose introduction is opposed by the staff?' Admittedly the position may be difficult, the more so as many members of the staff who honestly think the proposal to be an unwise one will be afraid to stick to their guns if they find that the headmaster is very keen on it. In such a case the first thing that a headmaster ought to do is to reconsider his proposal. If he has a majority against him there is the possibility that his proposal is defective. If, however, after reconsideration he is satisfied that it will be for the good of the school, he can allow time for the proposal to be talked over. The idea can be

allowed to sink in gradually. When the newness wears off, so will some of the opposition. If the idea is really a good one this will go far to conquer opposition. He should keep the matter before the staff but not try to force a decision.

(In the second place he can ask the staff to give his idea or scheme a trial for a certain length of time, promising that if it is found that it really does not work he will be prepared to give it up. Most teachers are reasonable beings and will agree to such a proposal.) As a matter of fact, although when a headmaster is new to a school he may come up against cases where there seems to be no other course of action except to impose an idea or a plan by means of his authority, as time goes on, and the friendly attitude and feeling of confidence to which we have referred have had time to grow up, the headmaster will find that the number of such cases diminishes almost to vanishing point.

There is one point in this connexion which a headmaster should always remember when he first goes to a school, and that is to go slowly at first. There may be many changes which he sees are necessary, but he will only make difficulties if he rushes at things too quickly. Let him give the staff, the pupils, and the parents time to get to know him before embarking on any extensive programme of reform, and let him remember that all such things take time. He will make much surer progress and also, in the long run, much quicker progress, if he goes slowly at first and begins his changes very gradually.

New headmasters, and new inspectors too, sometimes think that they have to mark their advent by making as many changes as possible in the ways and work of their predecessors. This is a mistake. However much changes may be needed, the headmaster will defeat his own object if he tries to rush things.

The friendly attitude which we have stressed does not preclude straight speaking or action if such become necessary. The function of a friend is not that of being content with saying pleasant things and of glossing over shortcomings, though it is often understood to be such. It is the part of a true friend to pull up his friend, sharply if need be, when it may be necessary. (The headmaster's duty is to keep his staff up to the mark, and if he finds slacking, carelessness, irregularities or questionable practices he must set his face against them without any shadow of weakness.) Cultivating the friendly attitude does not mean becoming easy-going or letting things slide. (When necessary he must be prepared to speak or act sharply and to the point. But this can be done in a sympathetic way with an understanding of the character, environment, and conditions of the one at fault.) The friendly attitude which exists will make the rebuke more keenly felt, and far more effective.

As leader of his co-operative group it is the headmaster's duty to keep himself up to the mark. (If he is not to be a blind leader of the blind, he must keep himself in touch with modern movements in education, with experiments which are being tried out in different parts of India and

in other countries, with new ideas in pure psychology and in educational psychology, with organizations, such as the New Education Fellowship, which aim at keeping their members, and the teaching profession abreast of modern thought and practice in education. He must subscribe to and *read* as many different types of educational and psychological magazines as he can afford. He must see to it that he keeps his own library, as well as the school one, up to date.) I have known headmasters who bought hardly a book from one year's end to another. Every headmaster who is worth his place will devote a definite amount of his salary to the purchase of books which will help and inspire him professionally. He should make occasional visits to well-known experimental schools where pioneer work is being attempted as well as to good schools of the ordinary type. He should always be on the look-out to secure speakers who have something to say on education or human nature to address meetings which his staff will be able to attend. In a word he must be alive and on his toes, filled with enthusiasm for his work and his school. Unless he *is* alive and unless he *does* do his best to keep abreast of what is going on in the educational world, how can he hope to help his staff to be alive and interested in their work?

(The headmaster should also aim at establishing a friendly relationship with his pupils and at inspiring in them the same confidence which he wishes to inspire in his staff.) The question of discipline and the

place of fear in discipline will be dealt with in a later chapter. Here let us say that if a headmaster is to have real success, and if he is to make his school the force in the community which it ought to be, he must gain the confidence and trust of his pupils. This again means that he must know them. It is, of course, impossible for him to know them as he can know the individual members of his staff, but that is the ideal at which he ought to aim. This is an argument against a big school. (It is only one of many such arguments.) When numbers in a school rise much above three hundred or three hundred and fifty, it becomes increasingly difficult for a headmaster to know his pupils. From this point of view therefore it is better to have a small school.

(The attitude of the headmaster to his pupils and his dealings with them should be such that they will neither fear nor hesitate to come to him for advice and help, and that they will feel encouraged to bring their personal problems to him. If they are sure of receiving a sympathetic hearing from him, personal relationships will be built up between the headmaster and the pupils which will give the former invaluable opportunities for carrying out his educational ideals. The more individual relationships are established in this way the more likely is the school to achieve real success in its work. I am assuming of course, that the headmaster is a man of the highest moral character.)

The spirit of co-operation which is so necessary between headmaster and staff should also exist between

headmaster and pupils, and between staff and pupils. This is especially true of the older pupils. The headmaster should do his utmost to see that the old spirit of antagonism between teacher and taught which is still found to such a large extent, is broken down, and that the pupils feel that they have a real share in the school, its work and its organization. This can best be done by a system of self-government, and by senior pupils being consulted by the headmaster. (This must not be simply a formal gesture, but it must be real co-operation so that the pupils may feel that their help is really wanted, that their suggestions and opinions are really valued, that attention is paid to them, and that they have a real share in the running of the school. It is in the power of the headmaster to bring about this feature of true co-operation with his pupils.)

THE HEADMASTER AS TEACHER

A headmaster will normally be a specialist in one or two subjects, and these will therefore be the subjects which he himself will teach. It is necessary, of course, that he do a fair amount of teaching himself, though not so much that he has not enough time for supervision work and office work. In this connexion it might be well to urge that every school should have a clerk. In some Provinces departments will not give grant-in-aid on the salaries of clerks, thereby discouraging their use. But most Government schools have them, and it is false economy in any school to try to do without a clerk. The

amount of office work demanded by inspectors' offices, a great deal of it petty routine work, is very great, and is steadily increasing. Registration work is important and must be carefully done and checked. Accounts must be carefully kept. If all this work falls on the headmaster and on those teachers who are qualified to help with it, it means that other sides of the school's work suffer. It does not leave the headmaster with the time necessary for supervision, and other teachers do not have the time to devote to their work which they ought to have. It is therefore sound policy to employ a clerk even if the department cannot see the necessity and will not give grant-in-aid on his salary. The extra financial burden will bring in a big return.

The headmaster, then, should do a considerable amount of teaching. He should teach about 23 or 24 periods out of 39 or 40 in the week. The subjects which he teaches will be those he has specialized in. It is advisable for him to teach two subjects if possible; of which one should be English or Mathematics. It is also advisable that the headmaster should take some periods in the lowest class in the school. This holds good whether the school in question is a primary, middle or high school. The headmaster should have five or six periods a week with the class where the majority of the pupils enter the school. There are two reasons for this. In the first place it will be of great assistance to the headmaster in getting to know his pupils. He naturally has a much better chance of getting to know his pupils if he is teaching them every

day. His experience of them will help him to check up on their progress, on their general behaviour and on how they are making good as they move up the school. He will have a good knowledge of their capabilities and character which will be of immense value to him as the pupils proceed through the school. It is difficult to over-emphasize the importance of the headmaster's working with his junior pupils in this way.

In the second place, as will be pointed out in the next chapter in connexion with the placing of individual members of the staff, from the instructional point of view, the lowest class in the school is the most important. Very often headmasters do not realize this, and confine their attention to the class from which their pupils sit for Matriculation or to that class and the one before it. The headmaster, if not the best teacher in the school, will be one of the best, and the junior classes ought to have the best teachers. This is especially the case with English which is so often the subject which the headmaster teaches. From the point of view of right method, good pronunciation, good idiom, and generally good teaching of this subject, it is of the greatest importance that the headmaster himself, if he is a teacher of English, should devote five or six periods a week to teaching English to those who are beginning the subject.

If the headmaster teaches one subject only, then he will be able to take periods with the lowest class, with the highest class, and with a class half-way up the school. He will thus ensure that his finger is on the

teaching of that subject, right through the school. If he is teaching two subjects, he probably will not be able to distribute his work so widely. But whenever possible an attempt to do so should be made.

SUPERVISION

'Supervision should be comprehensive ; its scope covers all the activities of the school. Probably few headmasters can claim complete success in this respect : complete success is after all the portion of no one. But when the conception of his duties is unduly narrow, then the headmaster's supervision will miss its opportunities—his exertions and his influence will be partial in their effect. There is no branch of the life of the school that should escape the headmaster's survey, for all contribute something to the making or unmaking of the pupil. Not only then is the teaching alone to be considered, but the occupations out of school, the games, the hostel life, the pupil's sleep and diet, and the school work he does at home ; and these not only from the standpoint of his intellectual development, but from that of his physical and moral development. Undoubtedly the temptation of a headmaster anxious for examination successes is to focus too entirely on the intellectual progress of the boy, and upon that again within a range too narrow and too shallow a depth.'¹

¹ H. G. Wyatt, *School Organization*, p. 5. (Pamphlet No. 17, published by Gulab Singh & Sons, Lahore.)

A fair amount of the headmaster's time will be taken up with supervision work. This will be of three kinds. In the first place there is the supervision of registration work and accounts—a most necessary branch of supervision work ; in the second place there is the supervision of the teaching work and of what is going on in the classes ; in the third place there is the supervision of the morals and general development of the school, including the supervision of the boarding-house and of what goes on there. This last work is most important.

Supervision of registration work and of accounts.—All class registers should be called in once a month and checked by the headmaster. He will know his teachers, and will know whose work needs special attention and supervision. But every register needs supervision. It is remarkable how mistakes creep in. At least once a term the admission and withdrawal registers should be checked. Checking here is especially important during the first two months or so of the year when most admissions are made. The property register should be checked once a term. Other registers should be checked occasionally.

(With regard to accounts, the cash book should be written up every day, the acquittance roll entries should be completed on the day payments are made, and provident fund sums paid in before the fourth of the month. It is the duty of the headmaster to see that all these things are done. (Whatever accounts he has to present to his managing committee or manager should be made up

at the end of each month. Fee accounts should be checked when the attendance registers are checked, and compared with the entries in the bank book. The headmaster is ultimately responsible to his managing committee or to the department for these sums, and even if he does not actually handle the money and keep the accounts himself, he must keep a careful and continual check on the accounts. He must also check the contingencies register at the end of each month, and satisfy himself that all receipts are in order, and that such items as should be entered up in the property register or the library register have been so entered, and that the details are correct. Provident fund accounts should be occasionally checked with the bank books so that he may satisfy himself that all is in order. He should see that once a year the interest given by the bank is checked, and that all members of the fund are given a statement of the amount to their credit.

Various pupils' funds such as the sports' fund and the library fund will be under the control of the headmaster. If he does not keep them himself but delegates the work to the clerk or to senior teachers, he must see that fees collected for these funds are regularly deposited in the bank (this will be checked with the cash book), and that accounts and receipts are all in order. This again should be done once a month. The authorization of expenditure of such funds will be in the headmaster's hands. Care must be taken to see that only such expenditure is

authorized as is legitimate from the fund in question. A headmaster cannot be too scrupulous in this matter. These funds are trust funds, collected for definite purposes, and should be spent on nothing but those purposes.

In connexion with the boarding-house, registers must also be checked. The boarding-house cash book must be checked each month, and also the attendance register. The boarding-house property register should also be checked once a term. No item can be struck off this register nor the school property register without the authorization of the manager or managing authority.)

Supervision of teaching work.—As far as the organization of teaching work is concerned, supervision will be made much easier if the staff is divided into faculties as described in the next chapter. Then the chairman of each faculty can assist the headmaster with the supervision of the work of that particular faculty. The headmaster is an *ex officio* member of every faculty and through the faculty meetings, especially at the beginning of the year and of each term, can supervise the drawing up of syllabuses in different subjects right through the school, can give advice on problems that may arise in connexion with different subjects, on methods being used and so on.

This however is not enough. It is necessary that the headmaster pay regular visits to different classes as work is going on. Even if senior teachers are assisting in this work, still the headmaster must personally see how class

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This however is not enough. It is necessary that the headmaster pay regular visits to different classes as work is going on. Even if senior teachers are assisting in this work, still the headmaster must personally see how class

work is being carried on and how classes are working. He does not need to make known a definite programme of supervision, though it is better if he has a private one of his own, which will give him some guidance as to the regularity of his visits to classes. The headmaster should keep a suggestion book, divided into sections for subjects and sub-divided into sub-sections for classes. In this he should note down suggestions which occur to him in the course of his supervision work and which he has passed on to the teachers concerned. This will help to systematize his supervision work, and will enable him also to check up on progress made.)

(The headmaster's visit to a classroom, if he has established the co-operative and friendly relationship with his staff which we have indicated to be so desirable, will not be a fear-raising ordeal for the teacher.) It will be an occasion when the teacher will get help and when constructive suggestions are made. The teachers will welcome visits.)

(The headmaster should never act in such a way that his visits make the work of the teacher harder.) He must be just. He must take into account the material with which the teacher is working. He must take into account the nature, disposition and ability of the teacher. He should not be annoyed if the teacher cannot do what he himself cannot do. He must understand the teacher's point of view. (He should be careful not to try to ram his own ideas down the throat of the teacher. Let him discuss matters afterwards with the teacher. If the head-

master thinks certain methods used by the teacher are wrong, then let him give the teacher a chance to explain why he is using those particular methods, and then point out where he thinks they are defective, and make his constructive suggestions.)

Needless to say discussion and suggestions will not be made in front of the class. The teacher should never be criticized in front of the class. If, as sometimes happens in the teaching of English, a teacher is found to be teaching something that is wrong, that may be set right there and then ; but it must be done carefully. The co-operative spirit, of course, does not mean that the headmaster is not to point out faults where he finds them. He would not be faithful to his school or to his staff if he did not do so. But it can be done in a friendly way. Occasionally the headmaster should take a class for a model lesson if he finds that one is needed, or if he wants to explain how some new idea should be worked out.

(Supervision of written work should be carefully and systematically carried out. Sometimes this may be done in class, but every now and then the exercise books of different classes in different subjects should be called in, and the headmaster should go through them to see what written work is being done, how it is being corrected by the teacher, and whether the pupils themselves are dealing with their mistakes and correcting them satisfactorily. The headmaster may not have time to go through every book in every class in every subject, though if he can do this occasionally it is all to the good. (But by glancing

through some of them he can form an estimate of how work is being done, and if he finds deficiencies, he can then go through that particular lot of books more carefully. He should pay more attention to those who have weekly reports (see Chapter VI) and to those whom he knows to be below standard. He should sign the books he examines and make any remarks that he thinks may be useful for the pupil.)

(Examination papers should be supervised by the headmaster. He must watch papers to see that they are not too easy and not too hard. He must go over answer papers occasionally to test the standard of marking. Sometimes bad work or inadequate work by a teacher may be covered by an easy examination paper or by easy marking. This is a place where the faculty chairman can be of great assistance to the headmaster. The headmaster should occasionally set tests to different classes in subjects which he is qualified to test, and should get faculty chairmen to give short tests in other subjects.

(The headmaster is also to control any private tuition work done by teachers.) This will be referred to again in Chapter VI. It may seem to be an infringement of the liberty of the teacher that the headmaster should be able to control outside work, but the headmaster is the best judge of how much work is required of each teacher in school, and therefore of how much time the teacher can spare for outside tuition work. He also is the best judge of the suitability of teachers for pupils. One teacher will not be able to do so much with a particular pupil as



another teacher may be able to do, because of differences in temperament and skill. The terms of private tuition should always be arranged through the headmaster who will then be able to see that the parent is neither the victim nor the victimizer. This arrangement should be made plain to teachers when they join a school. The headmaster will be responsible for keeping an eye on the work that is done and occasionally checking up on it.

General supervision.—Supervision by the headmaster must also be extended to other parts of school life besides finance, registration and teaching work. The headmaster is responsible for supervising the physical activities of the pupils of his school, especially the games. The organization of games will be dealt with in Chapter IX. If the school is divided up into groups as suggested there, the headmaster should not be attached to any particular group, but should be free to go to any group. When he goes to a group he should actively take part in the game that is going on. If he does this the pupils will enjoy his presence in their group. He should be careful to see that the teacher in charge knows the rules of the game that is being played, and that he is taking charge of refereeing efficiently. Teachers are often inclined, especially with groups of smaller boys, to referee in a careless way. They sometimes do not bother to learn the rules themselves, and therefore cannot control the game properly, and sometimes they are just careless. It takes all the pleasure out of a game, even for small boys, if it is carelessly controlled, besides being bad for the pupils. The head-

master, therefore, on his visits to groups, should pay particular attention to this matter. (He should also pay attention to the smartness and alertness of the group, and, if he find it lazy, should suggest afterwards to the teacher remedial methods to be adopted. The headmaster may also give occasional demonstrations of minor games, thus introducing new games into the school.

In this work of supervising games, if there are men on the staff who are keen athletes, the headmaster may get them to help him. Each will have his own group, but may be given one or two other groups to supervise and visit now and then.

(Physical drill groups should be supervised by the headmaster and senior teachers in the same way unless there is a trained drill-master on the staff. Even so supervisory visits to groups by the headmaster are very necessary.)

(The headmaster should pay occasional visits to house meetings, to meetings of literary societies and of Red Cross Societies. He should keep an unostentatious eye on the programmes of such meetings, and should, as occasion arises, suggest improvements. If there is a co-operative society in the school, it and its accounts must be carefully supervised. In fact the headmaster has to have his finger on every activity in his school.) It is not enough to start new ventures and activities. They need careful watching and nursing in the initial stages. But they also need continual attention, otherwise the life will go out of them, and they will gradually lose their usefulness and fade away.

The headmaster has to watch the health of his pupils. In cases of chronic illness he should call in the parents and suggest remedies or plans of action. He should get regular reports from the school doctor or the school nurse. He should do his best to see that parents act on the recommendations made by the doctor at the annual medical inspection.

Hostel supervision.—If there is a boarding-house in connexion with the school, the headmaster is responsible ultimately for its conduct. In some Provinces the practice is for one of the teachers to be put in charge of the hostel, as one of his school duties. Unless the number of boys is very small this is not to be recommended. If the number of pupils is at all large there should be a full-time superintendent of the hostel. Even where departments discourage this by withholding grant-in-aid on the salary of such a superintendent, the moral and physical advantages of having such a person far outweigh the financial burden. Needless to say it is a very great help to the headmaster to have someone in charge of the hostel who can give his whole time to the job.

Every now and then the headmaster should examine the food supplied to the boarders, the cooking arrangements, the kitchens and dining rooms, the arrangements for washing dishes, and the dishes and cutlery. He should go into the question of diet with the superintendent, and see that it is the best that can be supplied for the money that is being paid. He should pay regular visits of inspection to the hostel to see that it is kept clean and

tidy, that hostel rules are being kept, and that nothing objectionable is going on. These visits should take place at different times; during school hours; at meal times; in the evening; at night. He should pay special attention to washing and sanitary arrangements, and, especially in the hot weather, to the arrangements for supplies of drinking water. He should also pay attention to the way in which pupils sleep, seeing that doors and windows remain open when they sleep inside, that they do not sleep with sheets or blankets pulled right over their heads, that sufficient time is allowed for sleep and that regular hours are observed. Naturally he will also supervise the health of the boarders and be kept regularly posted concerning pupils who are ill.

(In connexion with the hostel the headmaster also has to supervise carefully the accounts; fee accounts, food accounts, contingencies account, hostel cash book, property register, and any other register kept in the hostel. He will see the attendance register every now and then.) In connexion with the hostel his work will not be difficult with a good superintendent, but even with the best superintendent, he must give continual supervision to all phases of hostel life and work.)

While all that has been discussed is important and must be done, (it must be remembered that the main object of supervision in the mind of the headmaster should be to see that his school is, as far as possible, accomplishing the ideals which he and his staff have put before themselves.) He must not allow his vision of his ideal to be obscured

by the numberless little trees with which he is surrounded, and to which he has to pay attention. More important than the question of whether such and such a task has been performed, is the question of whether the pupils are learning to think for themselves, to feel for themselves, to act for themselves. Are they being given the chance to develop all sides of their natures? Is fear being driven out of their lives? Is their education related to their lives and environment? Is the training which they are getting in school going to enable them to be better citizens of their village, of their town, of their country, of the world? Are they being given true ideals of patriotism and internationalism? Will they be so equipped in mind and body and soul and have developed such habits of mind and soul that when they go out from school into the world they will be able to meet and mould the changing situations that will confront them there, and so make a worthy contribution to their day and generation? This is the kind of question which the headmaster should always have at the back of his mind, moulding his attitude and his methods. His supervision should be guided by such ideals, and he should always be ready to encourage all forces and methods which make for the accomplishment of his ideals and to discourage all that would tend to nullify his efforts in that direction.

THE HEADMASTER AND THE PARENT ,

The relation of the school to the parent will be dealt with more fully in Chapter XV. Suffice it to say here

that the headmaster should take every opportunity which presents itself of getting into touch, and keeping in touch, with the parents of his pupils. Needless to say he should always treat parents with scrupulous courtesy when they come to the school. Sometimes, especially in rural areas, headmasters are inclined to be cavalier and impatient with parents. Nothing, of course, could be a greater mistake and nothing will destroy a headmaster's real influence more quickly. Every consideration should be shown to parents even when they are, as they often are, exasperating. (The headmaster should take full advantage of such opportunities as are provided by 'Parents' Days', prize-givings, and functions of different sorts to get in touch with the parents and to get to know them. The school should always be open for them to visit, and for those who come in from distant villages there should be arrangements made so that, if they wish to, they may stay overnight in the hostel.)

TEXTBOOKS

(One important department of a headmaster's work is the choosing of the textbooks which are to be used in the school. He should always choose textbooks in consultation with the senior teachers of the subject concerned. In fact changes in textbooks should first be discussed in the faculty meeting, and the headmaster could be especially invited to attend the meeting at which the subject is coming up.) The headmaster has, however, to be on his guard lest changes are made too frequently. The

financial burden on parents is sometimes increased when there are too frequent changes in books, especially where there are a number of children in the family. When dissatisfaction with any particular textbook is expressed, the faculty concerned should get samples of all, or of a number of the books sanctioned by the department and should go through them carefully. This, of course, cannot be done at a meeting. It must be done beforehand.

The headmaster should also go through them, and then at the meeting a decision may be made which will be confirmed by the headmaster. The final responsibility for introducing a new textbook rests with the headmaster, but he will be guided by the opinions of his specialists in subjects in which he is not a specialist, and even in subjects where he is a specialist he will take into consideration the opinions of others who are teaching the subject, as expressed in the faculty meeting.

In choosing a textbook there are several considerations which have to be kept in mind.

- (i) Is it written in such a way that the pupils will be led to think for themselves, or does it simply spoon-feed them ?
- (ii) Are the language and style good and clear ? Is it written in such a way that it can be easily understood ?
- (iii) Is it suggestive of lines of study and activity ? Does it suggest ways of self-expression to the pupils ? Does it make any appeal to their initiative ?
- (iv) Does it correlate with other subjects or does one, in reading it, forget that there is any other subject but the one with which the book is dealing ?

- (v) Does it cover the syllabus sufficiently well ?
- (vi) Is it accurate ? Are the facts correct ?
- (vii) Is it suitable for the class and age for which it is supposed to be written ? Is it graded properly ?
- (viii) Does it lend itself to particular methods in use in the school (e.g. the Dalton Plan) ?
- (ix) Is it well illustrated ?
- (x) Is it well printed in good type ?
- (xi) Other things being equal, is it cheap ?

All these things the headmaster will take into consideration in finally deciding on a textbook. Once having decided, he should give the book a fair trial, and resist the blandishments of those who wish him to introduce other books. If he has carefully made up his mind after examining all available books then he should give the new book at least two or three years to prove itself. He will meanwhile be watching to see whether it comes up to expectations or not.

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II THE STAFF

SELECTION

THE FINAL DECISION in the selecting of members of the staff of a school will usually rest with the managing committee, or, if they have delegated this power, with the manager. In the case of Government schools the matter will be settled in accordance with the practice in vogue in different Provinces. But whether the school is a privately managed one or a Government one, the appointing authority should always take the headmaster into consultation when new appointments to the staff are being made, and should, unless there are very good reasons to the contrary, act on his advice. He knows his staff and his school, and is therefore better able to judge what type of teacher will best fit into his team. He knows the work which has to be done, and therefore is the best judge of whether a candidate is suitable for the vacant position or not. In privately managed schools a great deal of friction could often be avoided if it were a rule in making appointments for the managing committee or the manager to consult with the headmaster.

When a new appointment is made the new teacher should be on probation for a fixed period. It is probably best to make this period a year. This is to the advantage

of both school and teacher. It is often difficult for a teacher to tell how he is going to fit into new conditions and the new school in a shorter period. It takes some time to get to know his headmaster and his colleagues on the staff. On the other hand, it is often difficult to tell whether a teacher is going to be suitable or not in a shorter period. A year gives the headmaster a good chance to evaluate the probationer's work, and to decide whether he is the man for the position or not. During this period of probation either the management or the teacher is at liberty to terminate the connexion at short notice. When, at the end of the period of probation, the question of confirmation comes up, the headmaster must again be taken into consultation by the management.

Teachers, when coming to a school, should insist on the period of probation being clearly defined, and should also insist on definite rules of service being laid down. When confirmed, a definite agreement should be drawn up and signed. This matter will be referred to again in Chapter XIII.

In making a selection the headmaster and the manager will take various things into account: first and foremost, character; then ability to understand and get on with children, teaching ability, willingness and energy, co-operativeness. If a teacher is coming from another school he will have recommendations, and even if he has done no teaching before he will have his Training College reports and recommendations. But a

headmaster and a manager should not rely too much on the judgements of others. They should insist on an interview before appointing any teacher, and may ask him to teach for two or three days in the school before coming to a final decision. During the probationary period, of course, they will have opportunities of sizing up the teacher for themselves. But naturally it is not wise to bring in a teacher on probation unless the headmaster and manager are favourably impressed and think that he will make good. This they have to decide as well as they can before employing the teacher at all. Probation gives them the chance to see whether their judgements were correct or not. But these judgements ought to be their own. While they will be guided by recommendations, they must remember that schools differ and local circumstances differ. A teacher may succeed well in one school and find difficulties in another. It is safer for the headmaster and manager to come to their own conclusions based on their own observations.

COMPOSITION

In the matter of the composition of the staff in an Indian school the question of the community to which a teacher belongs invariably crops up. Managing committees of communal schools often try to insist on employing as many teachers as possible who belong to their own community. Teachers belonging to that community always have preference. From some points

of view there are obvious advantages in this. From the point of view of the country at large, however, there are disadvantages. Probably the most that we can say under present circumstances is that, in a communal school, teachers belonging to that community should predominate. But the whole staff of such a school should not belong to the one community. In a Muslim school the majority of the teachers may be Muslims, but places should be found for teachers belonging to other communities. In a Christian school there should be Muslim and Hindu teachers. It will depend on the management as to what percentage of the staff will belong to the community of the management, but there should always be some leavening of teachers of other communities. In schools which cater for all communities there should, of course, be a mixed staff with no particular community overwhelmingly in the majority. The composition will depend on the composition of the population in the locality of the school.

There are two reasons for not having the staff of a communal school selected purely from the community to which it belongs. Firstly, even in communal schools the children usually do not all belong to the one community, and it is a great help to the headmaster if he has on his staff one or two teachers belonging to the minority community. They will be able to help and advise him if need arise in dealing with pupils who are not of his own community. In the second place, it is good for the pupils belonging to the dominant com-

munity to come in contact with those belonging to other communities than their own. They have to do this when they go out into the world after leaving school, and there will be some hope of breaking down communal differences if, during school life, from teachers belonging to other communities, they have learnt something of what is good in other communities than their own. This is, of course, an argument against purely communal schools. It would be an excellent thing for the country if in no school, at any rate in areas where there are mixed populations, did more than two-thirds of the pupils belong to any one community; that is, if in every communal school at least one-third of the pupils belonged to other communities than that to which the school belonged.

On the technical side of affairs there comes the question of whether teachers should be specialists or not; of whether we should have class teachers or subject teachers; and of whether there should be a compromise between the two extremes.

While in the higher classes it is not difficult to work with a staff of specialists, it sometimes becomes more difficult in the lower classes. Even here, however, in spite of certain disadvantages, it is probably better to have specialist or subject teachers as far as possible.

In an ordinary one-section secondary school it is always possible to have one specialist in mathematics and two or three in English, one in modern Indian and classical languages and one in science. (Usually the

last will not be fully employed in teaching science, but will have to teach some other subject as well). Drawing and manual training require specialists. But besides these specialists it will be found necessary to have other teachers who can teach a number of subjects, for the simple reason that if they specialized in one subject only, it would be impossible to find enough work for them. The rule then should be to have specialist teachers as far as possible, and to do one's best to have no teacher teaching more than two subjects. In bigger schools with more than one section it is not difficult to arrange for specialist teachers right through.

Even in primary schools where specialists are not usually found, it would probably be an improvement if teachers taught those subjects in which they were interested instead of being set to take a class in all subjects. In the one- or two-teacher school, of course, specialization is not possible.

What then are the reasons in favour of subject teachers? Is it not true that a teacher has a better chance of balancing the work of a class and of gauging their progress, knowing their weakness and where to put stress, if he has the class for all subjects? Will he not get to know his pupils better?

It must be admitted that with a system of specialist or subject teachers it is essential to have close correlation and consultation between teachers. There is undoubtedly the danger of the subject teacher considering only his own subject, and ignoring the others, requiring too

much homework for his subject, and generally putting too much stress on it. Such dangers are more easily avoided with a system of class teachers, and correlation becomes easier. But if the dangers are understood they may be met and avoided with subject teachers, and there are certain very great advantages to be gained from a system of subject teachers.

In the first place it ensures a more equal distribution of interest. It is not usually possible for a class teacher, teaching all subjects, to be equally interested in them all. Yet it is axiomatic that successful teaching requires that the teacher should be keenly interested in his subject. Now the specialist teacher is normally teaching a subject in which he is keenly interested, otherwise he would not have specialized in it. Each specialist is interested in his subject, with the result that in every subject the class gets interested teaching.

In the second place the specialist knows more about his subject than a class teacher is likely to know about that particular subject. In schools, perhaps, mere knowledge of the subject is not so important, except in the case of languages, where the greater the knowledge of the teacher the better it is for everybody, from beginners up. But there is also the knowledge of method where the specialist has a great advantage over the class teacher. A class teacher cannot hope to be equally good with methods of teaching in every subject. He cannot hope to keep up to date in the teaching methods of every subject. The specialist is able to do this in his own

subject and therefore the teaching method in all subjects is bound to be better under a specialist teacher system.

In the third place the specialist or subject teacher has a much better chance to get to know his pupils and to use his knowledge. The class teacher, to be sure, has his pupils with him more *during one year*, than a subject teacher can have. But then after that year he loses them and as far as class work is concerned does not come in contact with them again. The subject teacher on the other hand has his pupils with him for four or five years. He is able to get to know them, to mark their progress, to know their difficulties and to work out methods of helping and dealing with individuals which are of service to him over a number of years. He has a much better chance of really doing something for his pupils. He does not have them merely at one stage, but carries them right through as they develop. So he naturally has a better chance of knowing them and of turning his knowledge to good account. It is sometimes alleged that having subject teachers is to subordinate the pupils to the subject. But this is a fallacy. Whether the system used is a class teacher one or a subject teacher one, the subordination of the pupil to the subject is a thing which depends on the individual teacher. A class teacher can offend in this way just as readily as a subject teacher can.

(In the fourth place the subject teacher can grade his work much better than the class teacher can. He may for instance be responsible for the mathematics of

Classes VII, VIII, IX and X. He is in a much better position then to grade the work and to know the progress of his pupils as they go up the school than a series of class teachers can be. He does not have to waste time at the beginning of each year finding out how much his new class knows or does not know. He already has the requisite knowledge and carries on from where he stopped the previous year. The subject moreover is under his control right through instead of being broken up among four different teachers. The framing of a syllabus is also much more likely to be satisfactory when a subject is taken by one teacher in several successive classes.)

If any such system of individual work as the Dalton Plan is used, then it is essential to have subject teachers. With the Project Method of organization it is probably easier to work with class teachers although there is no reason why this method too cannot be used with subject teachers. If in the working out of a project strict adherence to periods is not maintained, it will probably be found that the class teacher system is more convenient.

It may be taken, as we have seen, that to have subject teachers right through the middle and high departments is an ideal at which we should aim. It will depend on the number of classes in the school as to whether such a system can be carried out in its entirety. (If subject teachers are used instead of class teachers there should be appointed a teacher for each class who will be known

as the teacher in charge of that class. This is necessary for such work as the taking of fees, and for superintending any corporate work of the class.

FACULTIES

The staff is a team working together in co-operation to carry out the aim and purpose of the school. It is necessary, as we have seen in the previous chapter, that there should be the fullest co-operation among the members of the staff, and between the headmaster and the management. We cannot have co-operation without organization, and it is therefore necessary that there should be definite arrangements for this purpose.

In the first place the staff should be divided into faculties. That is, all the teachers who teach a particular subject, or several cognate subjects, will form a faculty of that subject or of those subjects. We may have the English faculty composed of all the teachers who teach English, the mathematics faculty, the science faculty (in a small school these two may be combined; in a large school agriculture may be included with science), the general knowledge faculty, the modern Indian languages faculty, the classical languages faculty (these two may be combined in a small school). If there are technical subjects taught then there should be a technical subjects faculty which will include drawing. If a secondary school has a primary school attached to it, then the teachers in the primary branch will constitute a primary school faculty. The headmaster is an

ex officio member of every faculty but does not need to attend every meeting of every faculty.

The senior teacher of each faculty will preside at the meetings of the faculty, and a secretary should be appointed to keep a record of the proceedings. Meetings of faculties can be held as often as desired, but there should be at least one meeting a month. At meetings any matters connected with the teaching and organization of the subject of the faculty may be brought up and discussed, but a regular syllabus of subjects for discussion and demonstration at the regular monthly meeting should be drawn up at the beginning of each term. Having a subject fixed does not preclude other matters being brought up and discussed, but such a syllabus gives definiteness and continuity to the work of the faculty.

Faculties may arrange for experiments to be undertaken in connexion with the teaching of their subject, and should compare results, try to evaluate these results, and in this way keep interest in the subject keen, and do some constructive and creative work in connexion with the subject. The faculty meeting also gives an opportunity to discuss individual pupils where, as in the case of English, the subject is sometimes divided between two teachers. The chairman of each faculty, that is the senior teacher of the subject, should also be asked to do a certain amount of supervision work in his subject and so help the headmaster.)

At the beginning of the year the faculty should meet to frame the syllabus in their particular subject right through the school. A well graded syllabus can thus be ensured. This can be done in broad outline, and individual teachers left to fill it out in detail. This is especially necessary if a class teacher system is being used. By means of the faculty discussion of the syllabus, overlapping and gaps are avoided. (With subject teachers this danger is not so great, but there will still be the necessity for co-operation between all teachers teaching the same subject, for they must meet at some place, and there comes the danger of gaps or of overlapping.) At the beginning of each term also the faculty should discuss the syllabus for the term in each class. It is also a good thing if occasionally a teacher from one faculty is invited to the meeting of another faculty. An English teacher may sometimes be able to give help to the vernacular faculty.

STAFF MEETINGS

At least once a month there should be a staff meeting, attended by the whole staff. As has been pointed out, these meetings should have the real co-operative spirit in them, and should be a real means of mutual help. For these regular monthly staff meetings a syllabus of subjects for consideration, discussion or demonstration should be drawn up, but at the same time a good deal of time at each meeting will be taken up with matters which arise in the normal working of the school, sug-

gestions by teachers and by the headmaster, and by reports from the different faculties. There should be a report from each faculty at each regular monthly meeting of the staff. This will give an opportunity for matters relating to the correlation of subjects; difficult cases among pupils, and other matters relating to particular faculties but of general interest and importance, to be considered and discussed. The monthly staff meeting should not be a hurried affair. Plenty of time should be allowed for it. The time thus spent will be well spent.

A secretary should be appointed and minutes and records of proceedings kept. For the business part of the staff meeting the headmaster will normally be in the chair, but for the second part of the meeting, when the special subject for the meeting is taken up, it is a good plan for different teachers to take their turn at taking charge of the meeting. If this is done it will be easier for the headmaster to achieve the aim of establishing mutual friendship—the aim which he always has before him.

For this regular monthly meeting of the staff sufficient notice of important business on the agenda should be given, if at all possible, so that teachers may have time to think things over. It is impossible to expect teachers to give their best contribution if matters are suddenly sprung on them in a meeting. It is not always possible to give such notice but normally it can be done, and should be done in all cases of important changes which

are proposed. If faculties have any important matters to bring up, notice of them can also be given.

It may be necessary to have other meetings of the staff during the month, besides the regular one. These will be short and called to consider urgent business which cannot wait. The headmaster should always be willing to call a staff meeting at the request of a reasonable number of the members of the staff.

Such an organization of the staff, with faculties and faculty meetings and full staff meetings, will give ample opportunity for consideration and discussion of work that is being done, for planning of experiments, for directing progress in the work of the school, for correlation of work, for organization, for discussion of new methods, for consideration of difficult pupils, for ventilation of grievances or difficulties among members of the staff themselves, or which they may have come across among the pupils of the school, and will contribute very greatly to a healthy and vigorous atmosphere in the school.

ASSIGNING WORK

It is very important that the old idea that the best qualified teachers should necessarily teach the highest classes should be given its quietus. The greatest skill in teaching is required with the lowest classes. The best teachers should be found teaching the lowest classes. In the case of English for instance the most important post is with those who are beginning. This is the place for

the man with the greatest skill in teaching and with the best knowledge of English. It should not be considered *infra dig.* to be asked to teach beginners. It should be considered the post of honour. It is the same with other subjects. Those who lay the foundations are those who have the most important work. The man with the best training, other things being equal, should be required to devote as much of his time as possible to those in the lower classes. This is not to say that those in the upper classes do not need skilled teaching too. (All teachers in schools now-a-days should be trained. But it is to say that because a teacher has a high teaching degree or qualification he should not therefore automatically be given the upper classes. If a headmaster, for instance, finds that he has to choose between teaching his matriculation class and his lowest class in English, he should teach the lowest class.)

There may be one qualification to this. Some teachers are more at home with older pupils and can teach them better than they can teach younger ones. It is no use, of course, trying to fit square pegs into round holes. (The headmaster must study the interests and bent of his teachers and place them accordingly as far as possible.) If a teacher is especially good with older pupils, then his place is with them. But other things being equal the best teachers should be teaching the lowest classes, and there should be no thought of infringement of *izzat* in doing so.

III

DISCIPLINE

DISCIPLINE, according to the dictionary, means mental and moral training; bringing under control. Discipline in a school usually means order and system in doing things, regularity, and obedience to commands. Superficially a school is said to have good discipline if its pupils are obedient in class, do not make trouble in the boarding-house, and steer clear of moral delinquency. Real discipline, however, must be judged by its method as well as its results, and by its results not only in school and boarding-house, but also in the playing field, on the street, in the bazaar, in the home. It is also to be judged by the subsequent moral careers of old pupils after they leave the school and go out into the world. These are the places where discipline can really be tested and where we can find out whether a school is really doing its work in this direction.

Discipline may be of two kinds. We can have the type of discipline which is founded on fear, and is imposed from outside and from above by the use of authority. We can have the discipline which is the result of the gradual building up of habits of self-control and of co-operation; accepted by the pupil and carried out not because imposed from above, but because of his recognition of its necessity and value. Needless to say,

it is the latter type of discipline at which we should aim. True discipline can come only when the willing assent of the pupil is gained, and when he himself recognizes the reasonableness and necessity of what is demanded. The results of such discipline will be seen, to be sure, in the classroom and in school, but they will be more evident outside. Self-control which should be the result of discipline is a habit which will show itself in life outside school, and after school days are over.

Fear is a weapon which should be used as sparingly as possible, and when we use it, we should understand what we are doing. Fear may be useful in preventing pupils doing something, but is of very little use in creating any desire for active constructive work. In other words it has a negative and not a positive effect. It is of little use in creating good moral or mental habits. It may prevent the creation of bad habits and help to break bad habits which are in the process of formation, and has its function here. But we must remember that this is all that it can do. We may, by severely punishing a boy, make him afraid to tell lies. But we cannot by this method cause him to love truth; and this should be our real aim. We may through fear of punishment make a boy sit still when we tell him to do so. But let us not imagine that we are teaching him obedience. All we are teaching him is prudence.

We have then this principle in connexion with discipline. Fear, and punishment which gets its force from fear, are useful only in a negative direction.

TYPES OF PUNISHMENT

1. *Corporal punishment.*—Corporal punishment is a kind of punishment which should be indulged in as sparingly as possible. If we can get on without it so much the better. It is usually a confession of failure on our part. If it is used it should be used with a due regard for the individuals who are punished. Only the headmaster should have the right to inflict corporal punishment, and slapping and hitting by teachers should be severely discouraged. If a teacher recommends corporal punishment, he should be required to state his reasons, and the headmaster, knowing the pupil, will use his own discretion as to whether this form of punishment is to be inflicted or not, and if so with what severity. There are some children who are sensitive and highly strung, for whom corporal punishment is very bad. It is safe to say that it is usually bad for adolescents. But the headmaster will have to use his discretion according to his knowledge of his pupils. It should never be the rule that pupils sent to the headmaster always receive corporal punishment.

2. *Extra work given as a punishment.*—It is always a good principle to follow that where possible the punishment should fit the crime; that is, that it should be a natural consequence of the crime. In the common case of work not done or carelessly done, the natural punishment is for the pupil to be made to do the work which was not done, or to re-do the work which was

carelessly done, with perhaps a little extra work as well. If this form of punishment is given, the work done as a punishment will serve some useful purpose. It is a bad mistake to set a child, as a punishment, to learn long screeds of poetry by heart, or to write out so many lines of prose or poetry. Such punishments are simply wasting the child's time and energy and accomplishing nothing. Let the work set as a punishment at least be useful. (See Detention in Chapter VII.)

In giving this form of punishment it must be remembered that there is a danger of unpleasant associations being formed in connexion with the work given as a punishment. A permanent dislike of some particular branch of work may be developed through this sort of work having been given repeatedly as a punishment. We have to be very careful of the concomitant effects of what we do. Our punishment must not defeat our main purpose. This danger is minimized if, as has been pointed out above, we avoid meaningless punishments of a definite type, always used, and if the punishment simply consists in requiring that the work undone be done or that the work carelessly done be repeated carefully. As a rule it is unwise to set school work to be done as a punishment for misdemeanours of conduct.

3. *Fines*.—Fining is not a good form of punishment for the simple reason that it usually hits the parent and not the pupil. In many cases it is the punishment laid down by codes for absence without leave and for lateness. Absence without leave is often the fault of the

parent and in such cases the punishment is not objectionable. At the same time it often happens that the pupil is just as much to blame as the parent for absence, and when the headmaster has satisfied himself that this is the case, the pupil should be dealt with by arrangements being made for him to do extra work to make up for what he lost during his absence. Lateness for school is usually the fault of the pupil, and a fine therefore does not meet the case except indirectly through the effect of the parent's reactions on the pupil. Where it is insisted on by codes and departmental rules the headmaster should make a point of also dealing with the pupil either by putting him in detention or in some other way.

4. *Work other than class work given as a punishment.*—Where some fault of conduct has been committed, a wholesome form of punishment that can often be used is for the offender to be given some form of work to do in connexion with the school premises or compound. The form of such punishment will vary with local conditions and the type of work available, but it is usually not difficult to find work of different sorts which can be done. In this way the punishment may often be made to fit the fault. If the fault is in connexion with lack of cleanliness, for instance, cleaning work can be given. If property, either belonging to the school or to other pupils, has been wilfully or carelessly lost or destroyed, work may be given so that the offender may earn, if not all the money to make good the damage, at least enough to do so to some extent.

5. *Moral punishments.*—By this I mean punishments such as apologies, public or private, degrading from positions, relieving of responsibility given, and so on. These are usually severe punishments for Indian children, and the headmaster should use them cautiously. There are times however when they are exactly the type of punishment which fits the fault, and they have the effect of pulling the offender up short. In using them, as in all cases of punishment, the headmaster will have to take into careful consideration the pupil with whom he is dealing. Such punishments are felt more keenly by some than by others. But in cases such as bullying, a private or public apology, according to the heinousness of the offence, is a most salutary form of punishment. Degrading from position or relieving of responsibility should not be done without warning and remonstrance first, before the final step is taken.

On this negative side of discipline one of the most necessary elements is that of inevitability. Caprice and carelessness in the administration of justice will ruin the discipline in any school, and make for discontent among pupils and teachers. It should be clearly understood that where punishments are fixed, when they are deserved, they always come. Whenever possible there should be a definite and known punishment for definite offences. There should be a definite punishment for instance for lateness for which the headmaster considers there is no adequate excuse, and this should be given invariably. When property is carelessly destroyed or

obey a rule for which we know, understand, and appreciate the reason, than one which seems to be arbitrarily imposed. Discipline is made much easier if the headmaster takes time to make his rules and reasons for them understood by all. It is a wise plan to take senior boys into his confidence after a rule has been decided on in a staff meeting, or when it is being considered, and explain the rule and the reasons for it to them, and get their ideas on the subject. They will respond to his confidence, and things will go much more smoothly.

Once a rule has been made, no exceptions to it should be allowed in the ordinary course of affairs. Here again half the battle is definiteness and certainty. As in other matters the headmaster will have discretionary powers, but if he is wise he will allow as few exceptions to rules as possible.

A punishment register should be kept by the headmaster and all cases of punishment should be entered in this register. It should show the offence and the punishment given and the reaction of the boy to the punishment; that is, what effect it had on the boy at the time. There should also be a column for remarks in case the headmaster wishes to note down anything for future guidance. Detention punishments need not be entered in this register, unless the headmaster wishes to, as the detention register supplies the required record. In all cases where corporal punishment is given the parent or guardian should be informed, if possible, being told the offence and the punishment.

REWARDS AND PRIZES

On the other side of the medal from punishments are rewards and prizes. The object of these is to stimulate interest and provide a motive for good work and good behaviour. Again, as in the case of punishments, one must understand exactly what one is doing when making use of rewards and prizes. The interest created is an outside one arbitrarily attached to the subject, and is therefore not to be compared with an intrinsic interest arising out of the subject itself. It is possibly better than no interest at all, though it is questionable if prizes ever arouse much interest where there is not interest already present. The giving of prizes is apt to excite very different characteristics from those which we wish to develop. Cupidity is aroused and cultivated if the prizes are valuable ones, and in any case unhealthy competition is caused.

If the principle of rewards is to be brought into play it is advisable to do away with the element of individual competition as much as possible. Rewards should be given to groups rather than to individuals. The spirit of co-operation is thus encouraged. The members of a house for instance, if the competition is between houses, think not so much of their own individual triumphs on playing field, running track, or in classroom as of the triumph of their house. What they do is helping on their house or their class or whatever the group unit may be. There is no necessity for the symbol of victory, flag,

banner, cup or whatever it may be, to be of great intrinsic value. It is not the value of the trophy which counts. It is the successful outcome of co-operative effort. Children, as well as grown-ups, enjoy competition, and competition there will be, but as far as possible we should do everything we can to do away with competition between individuals, and sublimate the desire so that the individual learns to work or play or run for his group.

A good plan with regard to the question of class prizes for work is to give certificates to those who gain more than a certain percentage of the total number of marks possible in the term examinations during the year. There are certificates for each subject. The intrinsic value of the certificate is small, but the incentive to gain an honour is spread over a larger number of pupils. Where only three or four gain prizes it is possible for a large number in each class to gain certificates in one subject or another. This encourages many who would never be affected by prizes.

On the whole, however, it is best to make little use of rewards and prizes. The approbation of the teacher, and his praise for work well done are the best rewards, and will be felt to be so by most pupils if the right relationship exists between teacher and pupil. Work well done brings its own reward, and honest attempts to live a good life bring the natural reward of trust and confidence and positions of responsibility. It is almost always bad to give such prizes as conduct prizes. Good

conduct is not good when it is the result of bribery, and the only result of such prizes is to develop prigs.

SELF-GOVERNMENT

We have been dealing with the negative side of discipline. This, however, is not our most important concern. We are concerned with the positive side. The best way to build up a positive and constructive discipline in a school, to teach that self-control which is real discipline, is through a system of self-government. Pupils will learn self-control, not through hearing about it, but by practising it. A system of self-government, as its name implies, gives them the opportunity to do this.

We cannot hope to learn to speak or write English if we do not attempt to practise speaking and writing it. We cannot hope to form character unless we take opportunities to act. If we wish our pupils to form good character and good habits, we must provide them with opportunities for acting and practising what they learn, just as we provide them with opportunities for speaking English. Moreover this action must be self-directed, self-willed and self-approved. It is often said that a school is well-disciplined if the headmaster and staff can impose their wills on their pupils without any trouble, and can obtain instant obedience to their commands. Really, however, this is not discipline. It is a form of slavery: mind and will slavery. There can be no true discipline which is not self-discipline.

In these days, when democracy is the form of governmental rule favoured by many countries in the world, and when democracy is on its trial, and in some places not making too good a showing, our schools should be providing practical opportunities for pupils to learn how to govern themselves, how to take the initiative, how to judge and criticize themselves, how to weigh pros and cons and come to a decision, and how to regard laws and rules. A system of self-government in a school is an attempt to enable pupils to do this, and forms an excellent means of providing pupils with opportunities for learning real discipline that are otherwise difficult to obtain.

There are different systems of self-government that can be brought into existence. I will describe one system that has had a certain amount of success, and it will be seen what the principles are which underlie all such systems.

In each class there is a committee. Each committee is composed of four members. There are four houses in the school which are perpendicular divisions. Thus in every class there are members of all four houses. In the committee there is one representative of each house. He is elected by the members of his house in that class. The members of a particular house on the committees of all classes form the house committee, and the member of the senior class committee belonging to that house is the Captain of the house.

1. Teachers, and headmasters too, find it very difficult to give up authority to the committees. It seems to them that their prestige is in danger of suffering if they have to abide by decisions of pupils' committees and have to refer matters to them instead of deciding them off-hand themselves. Junior teachers especially feel touchy on this point, as they feel that their position is more difficult than that of senior teachers. The position is not made any easier by the pupils, especially at first. When such a system is introduced, the pupils, naturally, not being accustomed to such authority, are inclined to show it in ways that are irksome to the teacher and sometimes make trouble. There is no doubt that this is a real difficulty at first, but there is no doubt either that as time goes on and a school gets accustomed to the working of such a system this difficulty practically disappears. Both teachers and pupils get accustomed to the new way of dealing with matters which arise, and there is no tension between the two.

As in so many things, the magnitude of this difficulty, even at first, depends a good deal on the kind of relationship which exists between teacher and pupil. If this relationship is a good one, founded on friendliness and co-operation, then there will be very little difficulty. If the teacher has been accustomed to using fear as a weapon, then the transition will certainly call for considerable tact on the part of both teacher and headmaster. It can be carried through successfully however if an honest attempt is made to do so. As has been said, the

chief difficulty in this connexion is with junior teachers: the relationship between them and their pupils has to be watched carefully by the headmaster, and he has to give a considerable amount of help. Sometimes teachers will actively oppose self-government. If this is the case, and if the staff as a whole feel that the experiment ought to be made, then those who are against it must either loyally co-operate with it and do their best, or their position in the team becomes impossible.

2. As has been mentioned, the committees will probably err on the side of severity in their punishments. This is more evident when the scheme is first put into force. As pupils get accustomed to the work, and as things get more standardized this danger is not so great, though always present. The headmaster, in such cases, can refer the matter back to the committee concerned with his suggestions. It is very rarely that a committee refuses to modify its decision.

3. At the same time all those connected with such a system must be very careful to do nothing to make the pupils think that it is not real, and that what they do is only formal, and that they have no real power. The success of any such system depends on the reality of the working of all the arrangements. It is no use beginning a system where the pupils have the appearance of power and freedom to manage their own affairs, but when it comes to the point, are not allowed to make decisions or carry out the decisions they make. Headmaster and staff must be ready to give real power to the representatives

of the pupils, and to interfere as little as possible in what is done. Sometimes, as has been said, it will be necessary to refer matters back, but this should be done very seldom. It is better to let something go which is perhaps not very wise than continually to interfere. The pupils will learn by their mistakes. This is probably the most difficult feature of the working of any scheme of self-government, but trust and the giving of real responsibility are essential for success. The difficulty, as with many other difficulties in connexion with such schemes, is greatest at first. It will decrease as time goes on.

4. One of the chief dangers of a system of self-government, if it is not watched carefully, is that it may descend into what is simply a punishment agency, and that the organization will come to be looked on as serving disciplinary ends in the narrow meaning of the word. This, of course, is very undesirable, and it is very necessary to make sure that punishing is only one of many activities of the committees. To this end the cleanliness and general care and beautification of the school compound and of the classrooms and of the boarding-house is one of the branches of the committee's work on which great stress should be laid. Arrangements for these things should be in their hands. Arrangements for regular daily games, for house tournaments, for class matches and for the care of games material should be in the hands of the committees. As has been mentioned, literary projects of any sort are

also in the charge of the committees. The more diversified the work of the committees can be, the better it will be for the real success of the scheme and for the pupils themselves. At all costs one should avoid the idea that it is just a way for teachers to escape the disagreeableness of giving punishments, and a way of putting that burden on the pupils.

5. Senior pupils sometimes complain that the working of such a scheme involves them in a great deal of extra work. Sometimes they are unwilling to take office for this reason. This is especially evident in the Matriculation class. There is no doubt that the working of such systems does make demands on the time and energy of pupils which are not made in the ordinary course of affairs. It can be pointed out to them that the training in school is not confined simply to lessons and that they are getting, in this work, a training that will probably be more useful to them in after life than a great deal of the work which they have to do in order to pass the examination. At the same time arrangements and the constitution should be so made that the work is spread out as much as possible, so that the whole burden does not fall on the shoulders of one or two. The scheme outlined above is open to the criticism, especially in connexion with the general committee, that it is too cumbersome. This may be admitted, but although it may be somewhat cumbersome, the object is to bring as many pupils as possible into the working of the scheme and so divide up work as much as possible. The

more pupils actively engaged in connexion with some part of self-government, the better for the scheme and the greater the advantage to the school and the pupils.

6. Another possible difficulty, which is a real one, is that those elected to office, and especially the pupil elected to the position of president, who is head of the school, may not be really fit for the job. This has happened. The headmaster is then faced with the problem of whether to over-ride the election or make the best of a bad job. It is usually the best plan to make the best of a bad job. The school will learn by experience, and if the president is really not fit for his job it will be quite clear to all. The next time they will be more careful in their choice. One way to minimize this difficulty is to have elections every six months or possibly once a term, instead of once a year. Then if those who are unfit are elected they hold office for a short time only, and not so much damage is done. The great danger of over-riding an election is to make pupils distrustful of the whole business, and if that is done they will lose all interest. As a matter of fact this electing of representatives who are not fit for office is a position which may arise and does arise under any democratic system, and is itself a good lesson for the pupils. They get an actual experience of what happens in the wider life of the world, and learn a lesson which may stand them in good stead later on.

7. Another difficulty is that the various committees in the various classes sometimes do not understand their

responsibilities. They are inclined to let things slide. This is natural enough, especially at the beginning when a change is being made from a system where all discipline and all initiative in organization and arrangement were in the hands of the authorities to one where most of these powers have been handed over to the pupils. At the same time this slackness on the part of some committees is a real difficulty and is continually making itself felt. The danger can be overcome only if the teachers in charge of classes and houses are continually on the watch to see that the committees are doing their job and hold regular conferences with them. The work of committees has to be supervised. At first this supervision will have to be close, but it can gradually become lighter, though it will always be necessary, especially in the lower classes.

These are some of the difficulties, a formidable array perhaps. But they are all difficulties which can be overcome given the necessary tact, patience and perseverance, plus the right spirit. Although the difficulties are many, and not to be disregarded, on the other hand the advantages are very great. It is only through some such system that real discipline can be maintained and that real character can be formed. Ability to accept and carry out responsibilities can be developed only by actual practice in positions of responsibility. A system of self-government teaches lessons which our youth needs more than almost anything our schools can give them.

By being given responsibility pupils learn to think for themselves, to understand what they are doing, to weigh evidence before coming to a decision, to make decisions and to put them into practice, to undertake and carry out work, to plan ahead and to make arrangements, to organize and to meet emergencies. They become dependable and trustworthy.

Such a scheme enables pupils to see the reasonableness of rules, and to understand better what they are for and why they have been made. They are the pupils' own rules, which they themselves have seen to be necessary. This makes them far more responsible, and they feel they have a real share in the school, and are really responsible for its welfare. If such a system is in vogue it is very much easier for the headmaster to develop the spirit of co-operation which we mentioned as being necessary in school between headmaster and pupils.

Under a system of self-government, discipline becomes self-discipline. It is initiated by the pupils themselves and is self-imposed. It is not imposed from without, or above. This is why the type of discipline secured under such a system is much better than that which ordinarily obtains.

It will be recognized that a system of self-government such as we have been describing cannot be worked with every staff or by every headmaster. It calls for qualities which all of us do not have. Some people find it difficult to make any success of their school while employing such a system. It is probably better for a teacher who

feels that he is not able to work such a system as it ought to be worked, to leave it alone altogether, although this should not be made an excuse for not facing up to a task merely because it is difficult. We are too apt, as a rule, to find excuses for not trying to do difficult things. An attempt at something of the sort should be made, but where it is found that headmaster or teachers are really temperamentally unable to make a success of it, then of course it should not be persisted in. It is not everyone who has the necessary qualities, and there will be other lines in which they can make their contribution. But, as I say, this consideration should not be made an excuse for avoiding a difficult project. There is no doubt, I think, that such a scheme will bring a school much nearer the ideal than it would be without it. ✓

TRADITION AND DISCIPLINE

Discipline is greatly helped by the building up of tradition in a school. This of course cannot be done in a day, nor can it be done in a haphazard way, trusting to luck. The headmaster and staff must have a definitely planned campaign, both for building up a worthy tradition and for breaking unworthy ones which have crept in. The best method, in fact the only method, of doing this, is by example, and by the gradual influence of that example on the pupils. Certain picked pupils may be taken into the confidence of the headmaster and staff and can be of great service in establishing tradition. If there is a boarding-house in connexion with the school,

it will be the place to which attention should be directed in this matter. The opportunity for inculcating ideals of conduct is naturally greater here. The big help that tradition of the right kind can give is the marshalling of the force of public opinion. If this is well directed it can be of great aid in establishing the right kind of discipline. Under a system of self-government this is more easily done.

In the chapter on the headmaster we have seen that it is necessary for the headmaster to have a knowledge of his pupils individually. This is especially true in cases of serious breaches of discipline. The headmaster should have a thorough knowledge of modern psychology and also some knowledge of pathological psychology. Very often cases of serious breaches are pathological, and need careful treatment. If the headmaster is unable to deal with the case himself he should not be ashamed to call in any aid he can which will help him, whether from among his teachers or from outside. Each such case will call for individual treatment. There should be no rigidity of treatment. These are the cases to which rules made for ordinary pupils do not apply, and the headmaster should never consider himself bound by such rules in such cases. Each case must be dealt with on its own merits after careful inquiry has been made into the family and individual history of the pupil concerned, and, if possible, with the advice of a trained psychologist.

IV

THE CORPORATE LIFE OF THE SCHOOL

As a CHILD grows up in a school he should be learning what membership of a community means; what its demands and privileges are. This is not something that can be taught by set lessons. It is something which he learns by *being* in a community and *living* as a member of that community. This lesson, so important for the future life of the child, he learns as he enters into the corporate life of the school. As he feels himself one of a community, which has its definite traditions, its ideals, its reputation, its spirit which sets a mark on those who go through that school, he is taken up into that life, shares in it, contributes to it and gains from it. This is what he should be doing during his life at school. He can do it of course, only if the school has a corporate life.

The effect we want does not come all at once. A pupil enters into the corporate life of a school only gradually. He passes from his class community with its interests, to his house community, and on into the wider school community. And his entering into the school community life is a preparation for going out into the fuller community life of the world.

This is what we expect our pupils to do. But we cannot create a community spirit or a corporate life in a

school by simply deciding that we want to have it, or that we have got it. We cannot say to our pupils, 'You are a community. Proceed to feel yourselves one and live accordingly.' Developing a corporate life in a school is a long business, and we have to take definite measures to ensure that our school becomes a real community and not simply a conglomeration of individuals who come together for a few hours every day. If there is to be corporate life, it must be carefully tended and nursed.

The first essential is a feeling of friendship and community among the members of the staff and between the headmaster and the staff. If they are a team, all pulling together, feeling their mutual dependence, privileges and responsibilities, then the foundation for a real corporate life in the school has been laid. Then this feeling of friendship and community of interest must be extended to include the pupils. This is the foundation of all success, and without it, no matter what devices we use, we will not develop what we wish to secure.

But this feeling of friendship, essential though it is, is not enough by itself. Various aids must be used to give expression to the community feeling, to make it concrete, and to give it a chance to spread.

The first of these aids is the school assembly. In many schools this takes the form of a short period for morning worship and for religious exercises. This is a very natural use, especially when the assembly takes place first thing in the morning at the beginning of

school. Whether for religious purposes or as an ordinary meeting of the whole school for roll-call and announcements, there are important values in having the whole school, pupils and staff, gathered together at the beginning of the day. Even if religious exercises are not possible, some corporate activity such as singing should be introduced. Whether religious in character or not, the assembly at the beginning of school should be marked by decorum and order. Such an assembly gives the headmaster a chance to address the whole school from time to time as occasion demands, and can, of course, be used for making announcements as necessary. Announcements, however, should also be posted on the notice board.

If this school assembly is not used for religious exercises, and, indeed, even if it is, a school chapel or place of worship specially set aside for the school, where the whole school can worship together, can be a great help in developing the corporate life of the school along right lines. Where the members of the school, pupils and staff, are composed of those belonging to different religions, the school assembly in the school hall will have to be used for religious worship. Such a religious service should seek to meet, as far as possible, the needs of all. We should use such hymns, readings, prayers, etc., as will, at least, not offend the religious susceptibilities of any who are present.

A special school hymn or song, a school motto, a school flag, school colours to be worn on special

occasions, and, especially, a school badge, are all valuable aids in helping to make community feeling real. These things give the feeling of 'belonging' together which is so important.

One of the best ways of developing a real corporate life in a school is through school projects ; that is, definite tasks taken up by the whole school, teachers and pupils, in which all have a share ; as for example, preparing and building an open-air theatre, helping to build rooms, to prepare play-grounds, undertaking, as a school, definite work in connexion with rural reconstruction or adult literacy. Any form of service for the school itself or for the community in which the school is situated, will be an invaluable means of helping to develop the right community spirit and life. One thing in this connexion we must always remember. Whether the work be digging earth or any other kind of work, it will be successful only if the teachers, literally and metaphorically, take off their coats and do their share. Such an example will do more than anything else to establish a true community spirit.

The spirit of community in a school must be a spirit of co-operation. For this reason we have to encourage all forms of co-operation. Nothing does this better than a well-run system of self-government, such as we have already discussed. Each member of the school feels that he has some share in running the school. He really belongs to it, he counts for something. He realizes that he has a part to play. Any such system will be of great

help in developing a true corporate life in the school.

All such school functions as prize-givings, parents' days, festivals of various kinds, celebrations as recommended by Mr Hayward¹ in which everyone connected with the school takes part, are also useful from the point of view of the question we are considering.

On occasions, special meetings of the whole school should be held. At these, lectures may be given, though this should not be done very often. It is very difficult to give a lecture which will appeal to all, young and old. More frequently, different classes or houses may prepare a programme for such meetings. Such programmes may be displays of work, particularly craftwork or collections, with explanations of what has been done and of what different things mean; plays, readings and recitations, panel discussion, debates, mock trials, anything, in fact, which will entertain and interest. If such occasions are used for the school as a whole to see what its various parts are doing and can do, a greater interest in all the parts is developed by everyone, and there will be a closer link between the different parts.

Matches with other schools undoubtedly help to foster a community spirit in a school. But they have to be very carefully handled. A disastrous spirit of rivalry is often created which has very bad effects in other directions. This is especially the case with tournaments. A match, of course, is like a school project, with this

¹ F. H. Hayward, *A First Book of School Celebrations*, (P. S. King & Son).

defect, that everyone cannot take part in it. The use of tournaments and matches to develop the corporate life of a school should be used therefore with great caution.

As we have seen in dealing with discipline, tradition can help us greatly. But we have to build up our traditions and keep them going. Some of the things suggested will serve to build up a tradition of true community life. But, as I have pointed out it must be founded on a true spirit of friendship and co-operation in all who are in the school. As pupils and staff live together, a community spirit is passed on from one to the other. As all share common experiences and strive to achieve common purposes, so will the corporate life of the institution flourish and develop.

THE CURRICULUM

THE PROBLEMS of the curriculum and its formation are outside the scope of this book. For practically every teacher and every headmaster the curriculum is determined, and it is simply a matter of taking what is given and making the best of it. At the same time it is a good thing for teachers and headmasters to make a study of the problems connected with the curriculum in their own meetings, and in conjunction with parents. For improvements in the curriculum will come only when an enlightened public opinion demands them. It is part of the work of those who are in a position to understand the weaknesses of the present curriculum to help to form this enlightened opinion.

At the same time there are certain matters in connexion with the curriculum which do come within the scope of work of teachers and headmasters. In the first place there is the question of alternatives. Should a school offer alternatives, or should it keep to a definite course with only one line of subjects? This is not always an easy question to decide, and the answer will in many cases depend on local circumstances. Offering alternatives such as three different vernaculars and three different classical languages is expensive, and for many schools the expense involved will be a deciding factor.

In these days of specialization, it is certainly more efficient in smaller schools for as few alternatives as possible to be offered. A school is more likely to be efficient in teaching method, and in its general instructional conditions, if it has only one line of subjects to attend to. Trying to cater for all the alternatives that can be offered will only dissipate energy and effort, and efficiency is very likely to suffer.

As has been said, a great deal depends on local circumstances. If a school is the only one in a neighbourhood it is sometimes a hardship on pupils if as many alternatives as possible, out of those offered by the University, are not provided for. Again much will depend on the demand. A school cannot provide alternative subjects for an uneconomical number of pupils, and if the alternative subject is being taken by only a handful it is difficult to justify its being kept in the school. If a school is situated in a district where there is a mixture of people of different communities, the demand for alternatives in language is likely to be greater than where a school is situated in a district where the people mostly belong to one community. The alternatives offered will depend on the nature of the communities in the district where the school is situated.

Where there are two or more schools in a neighbourhood, the difficulty may be met by each school offering instruction in a different alternative. One school may have Urdu, another Hindi, and another Punjabi. In the same way, different alternatives in classical languages

may be catered for by different schools. Then those pupils who are anxious to take up one particular alternative may attend the particular school where that alternative is taught. Or an arrangement may be made, by schools situated close together, whereby pupils from one school may attend say, the Urdu classes in another school, while pupils from the second school attend Hindi classes in the first school. This is sometimes a satisfactory arrangement in a small place, or if the schools are close to each other. It has obvious advantages from the financial point of view, but it is not a popular solution of the difficulty. Rivalry between schools, and the fear that pupils of one institution will not get proper attention, or the wrong sort of attention from the rival institution, militate against the success of such an arrangement, in spite of the obvious disadvantages of two or three struggling schools each inefficiently trying to provide for the teaching of two or three alternatives.

In places where there is mutual confidence between schools, however, much can be done in this way. There has to be correlation of time-tables between the schools concerned. That is, if co-operation is taking place in connexion with alternatives in the vernaculars, all the schools concerned will have to teach the vernacular at the same time to the same classes. This however is not difficult to arrange. If possible the last period of either morning or afternoon sessions is preferable as one wastage of time in going and coming is saved. The wastage of time is, of course, one objection to such a

scheme. The farther away from one another schools are, the more difficult does such a scheme become.

In some Provinces the University regulations force on schools an offering of alternatives from which it is very difficult to escape. Where science and classical languages are alternatives for Matriculation, and the taking of one or the other decides what course a student must take up at the University, schools are forced to offer both alternatives. Here again the same considerations crop up, but no school worth the name could dispense with science, and yet classical languages are required. In such a case the school is forced to offer both.

In rural schools, whether middle schools or high schools, there should naturally be a bias towards rural subjects, and agriculture should always be taught in such schools. In some places pupils who wish to take up agriculture for the Matriculation examination are forced to sacrifice their mother-tongue. They cannot take both agriculture and an Indian language. This is wholly bad, but can be remedied only by pressure being brought to bear on the University, or by substituting a separate school-leaving examination where such does not exist. In middle schools in rural areas, and in the middle departments of high schools in rural areas, a place should be found for the general subject of rural science which can form a correlating centre for agriculture, science, geography, an Indian language, and, if the right type of readers are used, English. Rural science deals with the internal economy of the village, sanitation,

health, morals, domestic economy, cottage industries, agriculture, cattle raising, gardening, co-operation, education, and so on. Even although in actual school work it may not be possible to give more than a few periods a week to this subject as a subject in the curriculum, it can provide an excellent correlating agency, and the aims and ideals of rural reconstruction can be made to permeate the whole curriculum. Out of school hours a great deal of practical work and activity can be provided along the lines of rural reconstruction.¹

Another point which is of great importance in connexion with the curriculum is the introduction of technical subjects in the pre-high school stage. It is essential that wherever the curriculum laid down by Government Departments allows of this, teachers and headmasters should do their best to see that some such subjects are included in the curriculum of their school. The subjects introduced will depend on the type of school. Rural schools will naturally introduce rural subjects, such as agriculture, poultry keeping, cattle keeping, weaving, village carpentry, fruit farming, and so on. Town schools may introduce a more elaborate type of carpentry, tailoring, book-binding, weaving, metal work, electrical work, and so on. In girls' schools subjects connected with domestic science will find a place. But it is essential, in the interests of a well-balanced curriculum and of a sound educational system,

¹ See the suggested syllabus of rural science at the end of the chapter.

that more and more of such subjects should be introduced whenever an opportunity offers, and that every pupil should take at least one of these subjects. 'Manual training should find its true place in our educational system not as a new instrument of education in rivalry with the old, but as a part of a rounded and coherent system of mental discipline designed to make them helpful to each other.'¹

Such technical or manual work as is done in schools should be pre-vocational. That is, the middle or high school should not aim at turning out fully trained artisans or skilled workers. The object of introducing such subjects into the curriculum is not to turn all our schools into industrial or trade schools. But such subjects provide an essential side of education which is apt to be neglected in India, and from the purely educational point of view, even for such pupils as eventually proceed to the University, they are essential ; while on the other hand their introduction will give the curriculum a very salutary bias away from the purely literary type of education. A certain amount of such work should also be introduced in primary schools wherever possible. Many subjects such as weaving, book-binding, tailoring, simple woodwork, poultry keeping can be quite successfully attempted.

In connexion with the curriculum, although it is not usually possible for teachers and headmasters to deter-

¹ From the opening speech of Khan Bahadur S. D. Contractor at the All-India Educational Conference, 1933.

mine what subjects shall be taught, it is possible for them to determine the emphasis which shall be placed on a subject or on a type of subject in their school. Here the teacher has to take into consideration the future of his children, their life, and the future and life of the country. The emphasis of the school will have a big influence in determining the future attitude of the children to particular subjects and to education in general. As we have pointed out, in a rural school, there should be a rural emphasis. In all schools there should be a strong emphasis on the mother-tongue and a strong encouragement of everything which will tend to strengthen the position of the mother-tongue. One of the first duties of teachers in these days is to do what they can to bring the mother-tongue to the position which it ought to hold. Emphasis should also be placed on science and especially on the scientific method and approach in all subjects.

The philosophy of education known as the Project Method is one which has a vital connexion with this question of the curriculum and its content. Where the project method is practised without restriction, it determines the content of the curriculum. Too often present curricula are out of touch with the real needs of children and with their real life. Procedure according to the project method provides a curriculum which is closely related to the children's needs and therefore to their life. It follows that a curriculum which is of far

more practical value than those in vogue at present is evolved.

With the project method no definite detailed curriculum is determined beforehand. Briefly the procedure with the project method is for a felt need of the children to be taken up. The children are encouraged to satisfy this need. That is, they have a purpose before them, namely the meeting of the need that they have felt: Their activities are therefore purposive, and designed to aid them in the carrying out of their purpose. It is this purpose which determines the subject they shall study, and the work they shall do. They study the subjects which will help them to carry out their purpose and do the work which will enable them to meet their need. When they set out to meet this need, whatever it may be, they at once find that there is certain knowledge that they need, certain skill that they require. The desire to carry out their purpose provides the motivation, and so they find a much greater interest in what they have to do. Besides this their work is automatically related to a life need. Thus in a school organized on project lines, the content of the curriculum and the order in which subjects are taken up is determined by the needs and purposes of the children.

A child is not set to learn to read because it has been determined by the powers that be that he shall learn to read such and such books at such and such age. He sets himself to learn to read because he wants information in order to enable him to carry out his purpose,

and because he wants to find out what it is necessary for him to know if he is to make the thing he wants. He learns to write because he cannot get what he wants to carry out his project, that is, to satisfy his need, unless he can write a letter asking for the things. He learns arithmetic because he cannot get the things he needs without reckoning the price.

In this way the curriculum is not developed in a logical way nor has it a logical order. Subjects and order depend on the needs of the children, and the curriculum being thus closely related to the life of the child is extremely useful and valuable. Some of the stereotyped subjects usually found in the ordinary curriculum are perhaps not found in the project developed curriculum, while others not found in the ordinary curriculum have an important place in the project one. This is usually all to the good.

Such a procedure means that the teacher cannot prepare his syllabus beforehand. He does not know what he has to teach until his children have taken up their project. Once the project has been decided on, however, the teacher is able to make his curriculum for the time during which the particular project is being carried out. He will be able to see what subjects will be brought in under the project, and make his preparations accordingly.

For primary schools, whenever freedom to do so is given, it is recommended that the project method of determining the curriculum be used. Of course, under

present conditions, care must be taken, especially in the higher primary classes, that gaps in knowledge do not occur which will handicap the pupil as he goes to a higher grade school. The knowledge may not be intrinsically important, but under present conditions, if the lack of it will cause him to suffer, it must be supplied.

That these gaps will become more evident the higher the child goes, is true, and herein lies the chief defect of the project method when used in higher classes. There are needs which the child is going to have in later life, of which it knows nothing at present. Certain things have to be learnt in preparation for meeting these needs. Otherwise the child will suddenly come up against the need, and be helpless to meet it. It is too late to leave learning French until one has landed in France and feels the need of it. It is no use waiting to learn English till one realizes the need for it to write an application for a post. There are thus liable to be gaps left in a project-determined curriculum which have to be filled in, in view of the future needs of the child, of which its present needs tell it nothing. But in primary schools the method is to be strongly recommended, and in middle schools it can be used widely, as long as it is supplemented.

A SYLLABUS FOR RURAL SCIENCE

1. *A Village Survey.*

This is a regional survey and will deal with the history (local), geography, economic, social, and physical conditions, of a 'reconstruction unit'; that is, a number of small villages which, being grouped together, can be used as a unit for practical work. This survey is to be undertaken by the children themselves, and they will gather the information, classify it and write it up. With the help of the teacher permanent records, such as maps, are prepared, and a full description of every aspect of life in the village or unit is gradually built up. This work should go on all through the course, certain fundamental elements being done at the beginning. Every type of information dealing with all sides and aspects of village life, such as health, education, litigation, co-operation and so on come within the purview of this survey, the object of which is to make the pupils discoverers of their village, and to enable them to find out all they can about it.

2. *Personal Hygiene.*

Cleanliness of body, teeth, eyes, clothes, belongings, habits. Regular personal habits.

3. *Village Hygiene.*

Cleanliness of village. Sanitation. Pits, latrines, septic tanks and their kinds and use in the village. Fresh air and sunshine, and their necessity.

4. *Disease and how to deal with it.*

Smallpox and vaccination. Plague, rats and inoculation. Cholera, flies, and inoculation. Malaria, the mosquito, use of nets, methods of destruction of the mosquito. Bad eyes, causes and prevention. Venereal disease. General first aid and treatment of the sick. Diets.

5. *Problem of Debt.*

Causes and remedies of debt. Methods and habits of thrift. Savings banks. Insurance. Self-support and cottage industries.

6. *Co-operation.*

Theory and practice of co-operation and co-operative societies. Thrift societies and their working. Co-operative shops and their working. Co-operative banks and their working. Principle of mutual help.

7. *Litigation.*

Evils, causes and remedies of litigation. Co-operative arbitration societies and their working.

8. *Consolidation.*

The problem of divided holdings and the solution.

9. *The Home.*

The model home, plans of model houses, principles of ventilation. Beautification of the home and of the village. Gardens. Relationships in the home.

10. *Treatment of Animals.*

Treatment and feeding of cows, bullocks, buffaloes, donkeys, sheep and goats. Breeds and improvement of breeds. Milk registers and their use. Diseases of animals, causes and remedies. Poultry. The problem of the village dog.

11. *The Village Government.*

The *panchayat* and its working. The officers concerned with the village. The District Board and its working.

12. *Recreation.*

Village games and their organization. Libraries, reading clubs, dramatics.

13. *The Villager's Enemies and how to deal with them.*

Locusts, rats, *kutra*, etc.

14. *Education.*

Reasons for education. Women's education and its importance. Night schools and how they are run.

15. *Afforestation.*

16. *Agriculture.*

The regular course prescribed by departments.

17. *Science.*

The regular course prescribed by departments, with a rural bias and including elementary physiology.

The syllabus should be dealt with according to the concentric method. As much practical work as possible, both in school and in the village, should be insisted on. Such activities as co-operative societies, co-operative shops, treatment of animals, games, hygiene, agriculture can be carried on in the school itself, and these and other activities can also be carried on in the reconstruction unit in the village. The main stress throughout the whole curriculum should be on the practical side.

A SAMPLE PROJECT SYLLABUS

Project: *Poultry keeping.* For Class IV.

1. *Reading.*

Reading books and articles in available magazines on the subject of keeping fowls, their habits, feeding, diseases and how they are to be treated. Also reading about the treatment of chickens.

2. *Writing.*

Writing orders for things necessary for building the hen run and coops and also writing orders for settings of eggs. Writing up in the project book¹ the information secured from reading.

3. *Handwork.*

Building a yard and coops. Helping with the building of a house.

¹ The project book is a book kept by each pupil in which an account of the work done and of all that happens during the carrying out of the project is written up.

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4. *Arithmetic.*

Estimating the material required for yard and building, and also the cost. Keeping accounts of the cost of food and of money realized from sale of eggs.

5. *Drawing.*

Drawing plans of the yard, coops and hen house. Drawings of hens, chickens, etc.

6. *Hygiene.*

Cleaning the yard and house and learning thereby the necessity for cleanliness.

7. *Geography.*

Learning about the different kinds of fowls and from where they come. The names of different breeds take one to different countries.

8. *Morals.*

Kindness to animals. Conscientiousness in carrying out duties.

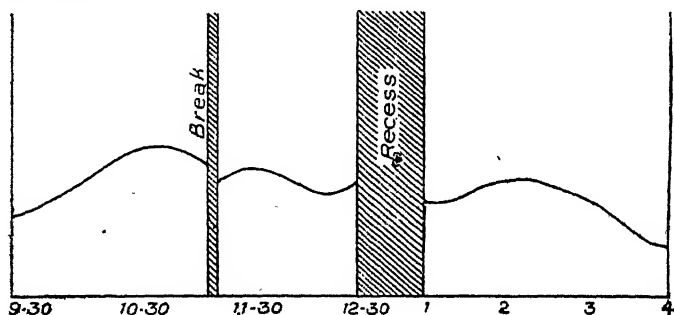
VI

THE TIME-TABLE

IN MAKING the time-table there are several considerations which have to be kept in mind. Firstly there is the matter of fatigue. Subjects which are more fatiguing than others and which call for more mental effort should be put at a time of day when the child is at his best. Each part of the morning is better than the corresponding part of the afternoon. That is, the middle of the morning is better than the middle of the afternoon, though the middle of the afternoon will usually be better than the end of the morning ; while the latter will be better than the end of the afternoon. Mental freshness and alertness is not, as might be expected, greatest at the beginning of a day, but gradually increases until it reaches its maximum about the middle of the morning. In the same way after recess in the middle of the day, mental freshness is greater not directly after recess, but towards the middle of the afternoon. The best periods for fatiguing subjects are therefore the second and third periods in the morning and the second period in the afternoon ; while the worst period is the last period in the afternoon. The same principle is true of the days of the week. Tuesday and Wednesday are the best days, from the point of view of freshness and mental vigour. We all know the 'Monday morning feeling', and the end of the

week is like the end of the day, the time when fatigue is greatest. This fact also should be kept in mind when time-tables and distribution of work are being determined.

The following is a rough graph of the daily change in fatigue.



From the point of view of fatigue, it is better to have a break for the whole school for a short drill and games period a little past the middle of the morning. If a drill master is employed who takes all the classes for physical drill and games and therefore has to take different classes at different times, this, of course, is impossible. Each class or at least each pair of classes will have to be taken separately.) But if the system is used whereby a number of teachers are trained to supervise drill groups, a break can be made for the whole school at the same time.

Some subjects are more fatiguing than others. The order of subjects according to fatigue-causing power is as follows: Mathematics, English, Indian languages,

science, nature study, history, geography, writing and drawing. Manual work subjects, such as woodwork, come fairly low in the list. In framing a time-table therefore, the best periods from a fatigue point of view should be devoted to mathematics and English.

Another consideration which has to be kept in mind in framing a time-table is the principle of variety. This applies to both pupils and teachers. It is bad for the children to be kept at the same subject or type of subjects, or at subjects which are high in fatigue-causing power, for too long a stretch. It is better, whenever possible, not to have the same subject for two consecutive periods unless, as in the case of science, there are other reasons for it.

Provision should be made for teachers also, so that easy and difficult lessons alternate. Where a specialist teacher system is used this is not always easy or possible. But as far as possible, care should be taken that a teacher of English, for instance, does not have a run of oral lessons one after the other, but that writing or composition lessons alternate with oral lessons. The specialist teacher will be able to arrange this for himself to a large extent, but the headmaster should see that the teacher has paid attention to it, for often a little re-arrangement in the lessons for the different classes he takes, will give both the teacher and the classes quite a lot of relief. In the case where class teachers are taking the classes for practically every subject, it is not difficult to arrange for variety. From every point of view the framing of the

time-table is much easier when the class teacher system is in use.

In small schools where two classes are using the same room, attention has to be paid, in framing the time-table, to the type of lessons which will be going on at the same time. A reading lesson and a lesson in tables can hardly go on in the same room at the same time. While one class is reading, the other class should be writing, and so on.

What has been said about variety in the order of lessons has to be modified in the case of subjects such as science and agriculture. When practical work has to be done in science, it is necessary to have two successive periods at a time for the subject. This is also necessary for practical work in agriculture. In this subject in fact, where there is a farm attached to the school, it is advisable to let a class do its whole week's work in agriculture on one day, taking the four or five periods given to the subject in the week one after the other, thus obtaining a stretch for practical work.

In the case of science, where, as sometimes happens in high schools, the subject is alternative with another subject such as Persian or Arabic or Sanskrit, and we have half the class doing science while the other half are doing a classical language, it means that the half doing the classical language will also have two periods consecutively, which is neither necessary nor good. The only thing that can be done under such circumstances is for the classical language teacher to vary his lessons as

much as possible, taking one period on texts or silent reading, and the next on composition and grammar, or making some such arrangement.

Another question which has to be decided in connexion with the time-table is the length of the periods. Ideally it would probably be better to have different length periods for different subjects. For subjects that are more fatiguing, periods should be greater in number and shorter in length ; while for subjects that are less fatiguing, periods may be longer. Usually it is impossible to arrange for this. Something may be done if a system of half periods is used. The objection to this is that the half period is usually far too short. In actual practice the best way is to strike a happy mean and have the periods of the same length. A period of forty minutes is a good average. Thirty-five minutes is verging on the short side for many subjects. An hour is too long for the harder subjects. It will probably be found that periods of forty to forty-five minutes are the most satisfactory all round. While periods should not be too long, it is also very unwise to have them too short. This is especially the case with older pupils. In primary and middle schools the periods may with advantage be shorter. Considerations of climate will also have to be taken into account and the length of periods should be flexible, becoming shorter in the very hot weather, and lengthening again in the cool weather. The times given above are for cool or cold weather.

Another consideration which must be kept in mind when framing the time-table is the necessity of some free periods for all teachers, and of the placing of these free periods. Teachers should have some free periods. But it is of little use to a teacher to give him all his free periods for the week in one day. They should be scattered over the whole week as far as possible. The number of free periods will depend on the staffing of the school, but each teacher should have a minimum of four free periods in a week and, if possible, five. Those, such as English teachers, who have a great deal of correction work to do should be given special consideration in this matter. Science teachers also should have extra free periods for the setting up of apparatus; though the more of this work that is done by the pupils themselves, the better.

There should be a general time-table worked out in two ways; class-wise and teacher-wise. Both these are necessary. There should be two copies of each. Of the teacher-wise time-table, one copy should be in the staff-room and one copy in the headmaster's office. Of the class-wise time-table, one copy should be on a board near the main notice board where it can be seen by everybody, and one copy should be in the office. Besides these time-tables, under a class teacher system there will be in each room a time-table of the work of the particular class using the room. If a subject teacher system is being employed, the teacher will have his week's time-table on the wall of his room. Even with a specialist

teacher system it is advisable to have class time-tables made out and put up on the wall of the room which has been assigned to the class as its particular room.

In primary schools where a teacher has more than one class it is very necessary for the time-table to be clearly written out and posted on the wall so that the children may see for themselves what they are supposed to be doing. This will be a great help to the teacher.

Under a specialist system with its subject rooms, it is also necessary to plan and put up along with the class-wise time-table a room time-table made out class-wise. Otherwise, especially at the beginning of term, there is liable to be a lot of confusion. Rooms can be numbered; Mathematics A, Mathematics B, English A, English B, English C, and so on, and from this time-table classes can see at a glance where they are supposed to go. It also makes it easy for a class to be found by anyone wishing to do so. It is a good thing, though not essential, to have this time-table also made out for each class, and put up alongside the class work time-table in the room assigned to the class.

Either included in the class-wise time-table or as a separate time-table, there should be the games time-table. If games are organized according to classes this can be added to the class time-table. If, as is a better arrangement, the school is divided into groups according to size or ability in games, a separate time-table should be made. (This will indicate the game to be played by the particular group on a particular day and the ground

where it is to play. The grounds available should be numbered and, by means of the time-table, assigned to the various groups. There does not need to be a separate teacher-wise time-table as the information can be added to the ordinary time-table.

The table on the opposite page is an example of a games time-table.

Reference should be made to the effect on the time-table of a system of organization such as we have under the Dalton Plan. The Dalton Plan or similar systems of individual work demand subject teachers. The teacher is present in his room and pupils of any classes for which the arrangement is in force may come to his room at any time. Periods are done away with for such part of the day as the system is being used, and a pupil may stay in one room at work on one subject as long as he likes. Usually a minimum time for work on one subject is insisted on in order to prevent too much confusion. But with this reservation pupils are free to go from one subject to another as they wish to, and there is no set length of time for different subjects as under the ordinary time-table. The pupils are left free to make their own time-table according to their needs and interests.

Such an arrangement means of course that the teachers concerned with the subjects which are being dealt with in this way must all be in their rooms at the same time. Thus if history, geography, science, Urdu grammar and composition, English grammar and

Games Time-Table

Group	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
1	Hockey A	Rugger Touch E	Football A	Basketball G	Hockey A	Volleyball J
2	Hockey B	Football A	Rugger Touch E	Football A	Basketball G	Volleyball J
3	Rugger Touch E	Hockey B	Volleyball J	Football B	Basketball H	
4	Volleyball J	Basketball G	Hockey B	Rugger Touch E	Football B	
5	Hockey C	Rugger Touch F	Football C	Basketball H	Minor Games C	
6	Rugger Touch F	Hockey C	Basketball G	Football C	Minor Games D	
7	Football D	Basketball H	Hockey D	Rugger Touch F	Minor Games E	
8	Basketball H	Football D	Rugger Touch F	Hockey D	Minor Games F	
8A	Gardening	Gardening	Gardening	Gardening	Gardening	

The letters A, B, etc., represent the grounds. Each group uses the ground assigned to it for the particular day. Group 8A is composed of those who wish to take up gardening instead of games.

Saturday is left blank except in the case of two groups as it is a half holiday. Those who wish to play in the evening may join in the game arranged.

composition are being dealt with in this way for the length of time taken by four periods of the ordinary time-table, for that length of time the teachers of those subjects must be in their subject rooms, as pupils may come to their subject from any of the classes working according to the plan at any time during those four periods. If the whole school is organized according to such a plan the time-table is, of course, a very simple matter. If only a part of the school and only some of the subjects are dealt with according to such a plan the framing of the time-table is more difficult, but can be worked out by assuming that in the time given for individual work each class will use the same amount of time for a subject as under the ordinary time-table. The four periods or whatever number of periods are devoted to individual work will simply be shown as individual work periods. Provision should be made in the time-table for conferences of the different classes in different subjects on one day in the week, when the subject teacher has each class as a whole for a period in the subject which has been dealt with according to individual work methods during the other five days of the week.

Opposite this page is an example of a time-table where some subjects are taught according to individual work methods.

Under the project method, there should be flexibility in the time-table. It is not necessary to conform rigidly to the set periods for different subjects, but if it is found necessary or advisable, according to the way in which

the project is developing, more time can be taken for some subject to which the carrying out of the project

8

Games

the length of
ere are also

the difficulties are, we should never allow them to cause us to give up the attempt to follow the right principles

and make the time-table in the easiest way possible. Some attempt to adhere to right principles can always be made, no matter how difficult the local circumstances may be.

VII

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION

REGISTRATION

THE FOLLOWING REGISTERS should be kept in a school. The particular forms in which different registers should be kept are usually laid down by departments.

1. *Attendance registers.*—As far as possible only one attendance register should be kept by any one teacher. Exceptions may be made when classes are small. The teacher who is the class teacher, or in the case of a specialist system, to whom a class has been assigned, should keep the attendance register of his class. Great care should always be taken to see that attendance is properly marked on the spot. The practice of putting down dots in pencil and filling in attendance later, is not to be countenanced. All details concerning fees and so on which have to be entered in the attendance register should be carefully filled in, and the money banked or handed to the school treasurer at once. The totals which have to be filled in at the end of the month should be invariably entered on the last day of the month, and the register checked and signed on the first day of the following month by the headmaster. Holidays will always be shown in the attendance registers and the nature of the holiday written in, e.g. Sunday, Saturday half holiday, Easter holidays and so on.

Applications for leave should always be signed by the guardian or parent of the pupil, or, if that is impossible, by someone responsible. The reason for absence should always be clearly stated in the application and vague reasons such as 'for urgent work at home' should not be accepted. In the case of sickness of a boarder the signature of the school nurse or doctor should be on the application. All applications for leave should come through either the class teacher or the house tutor to the headmaster. The one who has this duty will save the headmaster a good deal of time if he carefully scrutinizes applications and refrains from recommending them unless he is convinced of the need. Except in the case of sickness or some other unavoidable cause, applications for leave which are not presented before leave is taken should automatically be rejected. Schools in India get plenty of holidays, and leave should be given only for absolutely necessary reasons. Leave during examinations should not be granted except on a doctor's certificate or when the headmaster is satisfied that there is a case of serious illness.

Fees which have to be entered in the attendance register, should be paid before certain dates which are fixed by departments. Teachers who collect fees should always be very careful to give receipts to pupils, and to get a receipt for the amount handed over to the school treasurer or the headmaster if they do not bank them directly themselves. Each teacher who takes fees should have a definite time for receiving fees. It should never

be done during the teaching hours. Fines have to be carefully entered in the registers also.

2. *Teachers' attendance register*.—This should show the time of arrival of the teacher and the time of departure each day. This should be regularly filled in and signed by all teachers, morning and afternoon, every day. This register should be placed in the staff room. Holidays and their nature will also be indicated in it. Leave and the nature of the leave will be shown and all applications for leave will be filed in the school office. Leave of absence will be granted by the manager on the recommendation of the headmaster. Applications will come to the manager through the headmaster. In cases where there is no manager, of course, departmental rules will be followed. For cases of extended sick leave a doctor's certificate should be required. The number of day's casual leave or of sick leave taken during the month should be filled in at the end of the month.

3. *Admission and withdrawal register*.—This register is a record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school. In it are entered the date of admission, the serial number of the pupil, the age and name of the pupil, the father's name, caste, occupation and address, the class to which the pupil is admitted. There are also columns for the date of withdrawal and the class from which the pupil is withdrawn. This is a most important register and great care has to be taken with it. Especial care is to be taken that there are no mistakes in entering up the date of birth of the pupil when he is admitted to

the school. This register is often required as evidence for the date of birth, and hence the necessity for care with this item. When pupils move from one department to another in the school, as from middle to high departments, fresh entries have to be made. Usually separate registers are kept for each department. There is danger of mistakes in copying, and such work should be carefully done and carefully checked.

4. *Acquittance roll*.—An acquittance roll must be kept, showing the salaries paid to teachers and to servants, the number of days of the month during which the teacher was employed, deductions for provident fund and any other deductions, with the teacher's signature and the date. It may seem superfluous to add that no teacher should sign the acquittance roll without receiving his salary, but it is a point that it is necessary to emphasize.

5. *Contingencies register*.—This is a register of all expenditure on equipment, repairs to buildings, rents for buildings, stationery, books bought for the library, postage, petty expenditure and so on. As each item is entered in the cash book it is also entered in the appropriate column in the contingencies register and the receipt filed. There must be a receipt for every item shown in the contingencies register. The correspondence register is the receipt for the item for postage. When there is uncertainty as to which column is the correct one in which an item is to be entered, as sometimes does arise, the help of the auditor may be obtained.

6. *Correspondence registers*.—Two correspondence registers should be kept ; one for letters received and one for letters sent. The date of the receipt or sending of letters should be noted, a very brief resume of the subject-matter of the letter written down, the address of the person to whom it was sent or from whom it was received entered up, and, in the case of letters sent, the amount of the postage entered up. There will also be a column for the number of the letter.

7. *Property register*.—This is a register of all the movable property in the school. Whenever any equipment or furniture that is of a more or less permanent nature is bought and placed in the school it must be duly entered up in the property register. Along with the name of the article should appear the date of receipt of the article in school, its price, and by whose authority it was bought. A note might also be made of the room in which it is placed. Nothing can be struck off the property register without the sanction of the controlling authority, and the signature of the officer giving the authority should appear in the register in every case. If anything is realizable on old and discarded articles they should be sold or auctioned, and the amount credited to the reserve fund of the school.

The property register should be regularly checked by the headmaster. This should be done at least once a term. Checking is much simplified if room-wise property lists are kept. A duplicate of the list of property in each room may be kept on the wall of each room and

items added as articles are placed in the room or cut off if articles are taken from the room. The teachers in charge of rooms have then a better chance of keeping a check on property and checking is made much easier.

8. *A Log book*.—This is usually required by departments for writing up the reports of inspectors' visits and their remarks on the condition of the school. In it are also entered the statistics required by the inspector on the occasion of the annual visit.

9. *A visitors' book*.—This should also be kept for registering the remarks of any who visit the school, but are not entitled to put remarks in the log book.

10. *Statistical register*.—This is a register for showing figures connected with the finances of the school, the numbers of pupils and numbers in classes, average attendance and so on. It will be kept according to the forms prescribed by the educational department under which the school is working.

11. *A private tuition register*.—In this are recorded details of any private tuition undertaken by any teacher in the employ of the school. Such work should be undertaken only with the sanction of the headmaster or of the manager and should always be recorded in the private tuition register. There are two reasons for this. One is that if the headmaster knows what is being done in this matter he is in a better position to help teachers in cases of difficulty over payment of fees. Such cases not uncommonly arise. In the second place the headmaster can judge whether a teacher is attempting so

much outside work that his teaching and other school work are likely to suffer. This is a point the headmaster has always to take into consideration in giving leave to a teacher to do private tuition work. In the register should be entered the name of the pupil to whom tuition is being given, the name and address of the father of the pupil, the amount of time daily spent in tuition, the fee agreed on, and the signature of the father or guardian of the pupil along with the signature of the teacher, and of the headmaster.

12. *Conduct register*.—This is a register in which the general conduct of all boys is recorded. If regular progress reports are kept and filed, such a register is not really necessary.

13. *Punishment register*.—In this register a record is kept of boys punished by the headmaster, especially cases of corporal punishment. Other cases may also be recorded. The register is meant however for serious breaches of discipline. The date, the name and class of the pupil, the nature of the breach of discipline, the nature of the punishment and the signature of the headmaster should all find a place in the register. All cases entered in this register should be reported to the parents of the culprits concerned, and the date of the report to the parent entered in the register. A further column may be added in which the headmaster may record the effect, good, bad, or indifferent, which the punishment had on the pupil.

14. *The cash book*.—In this is entered every financial transaction of any sort which goes on in the school. All amounts received by way of grant-in-aid, donations, subscriptions, fees, fees for boys' funds, scholarship money, and so on are entered up on the credit side and corresponding entries are made on the other side showing how these amounts were expended. If placed in the bank, the entries on the debit side will, of course, correspond with bank book entries. When the money is needed it will be withdrawn from the bank and shown on the credit side, appearing again on the debit side as it is paid out. The cash book should be balanced at the end of each month and should be posted each day. Needless to say fee money and money belonging to pupils' funds should not remain with teachers or with the headmaster but should be banked. Only if the cash book is carefully kept, and bank accounts maintained for all funds, can any real check on school finances be maintained.

15. *Library registers*.—Two library registers should be kept. One will be a register of the books in the library giving details of name, author, date of receipt, price, and serial number, with a cross reference to the contingencies register. It is a good plan, in the case of the teachers' library, to have prepared a second list of books with authors with the books classified according to subject-matter, such as fiction, history, educational theory, educational method, and so on. A copy of the list thus classified should be posted in the teachers' room

or on the door of the library. The second register to be kept is one of withdrawal of books, in which is shown the name and number of the book taken out, the date and the signature of the person taking it, the date of return and the signature of the librarian.

If the class library system is in vogue then each class library will also require these two registers. If there are subject libraries then each subject library will require these same two registers. If a general reading room for the whole school is used, it is still a good plan to have the books divided up into collections suitable for different classes with separate registers for each division. Under any system the books for use of teachers and the books for use of pupils should be separate libraries with separate registers. (This need not prevent teachers using books from the pupils' library nor pupils using books from the teachers' library if occasion arise.) As has been noted, entries in library registers should correspond with entries in the contingencies register and in the cash book in the case of the teachers' library, and with entries in the library fund account and the cash book in the case of books bought for the pupils from the library fund.

PUPILS' FUNDS

Separate accounts should be kept for all pupils' funds with separate bank accounts. Fees should be paid in to the headmaster or to the teacher in charge of the particular fund as soon as they are collected, and they can

then be deposited in the bank, the amounts being entered both in the general cash book and in the account of the fund concerned. Usually all such funds will be under the control of the headmaster or the manager, but teachers may be required to keep the accounts and look after material.

Great care should be taken to spend money from pupils' funds only on objects that are of real use to the pupils, and are really connected with the purpose for which the fund is established. It is not a fair thing, for instance, to spend a comparatively large sum from the pupils' library fund on a daily newspaper in English for the staff and headmaster to read. Possibly a few of the older pupils may be able to get something from a daily English newspaper but the great majority of those who have subscribed to the fund will get nothing at all from it. It is therefore not a fair expenditure. Members of the staff should buy their own newspaper, and for this and other expenses connected with activities of the staff it is a very good idea to have a teachers' fund to which a regular small contribution is made by all members of the staff.

Expenditure from the sports' fund also requires careful scrutiny. There should be a very strict limit to the amount spent out of the sports' fund on school teams travelling to play matches with other schools or in tournaments. Some expenditure on this may be justified, but it is not fair to spend the money of all the pupils on the pleasure of a few even if they are the

school representatives. In the same way a strict limit should be placed on the amount spent out of the sports' fund on the entertainment of visiting teams.

The principle that should govern the administration of all such pupils' funds is a simple one. They are trust funds collected for a certain definite purpose. They must be used for that purpose and for nothing else, and everyone who contributes to the fund is entitled to benefit from it.

HOMework

There should be some method adopted in a school for regulating the homework set. Headmaster and staff should agree first of all on the amount of time that each class should be expected to spend on homework, and on how that time is to be divided up among different subjects, or at least the time to be devoted to those subjects which come every day. The danger to be guarded against, which is greater when a system of specialist teachers is employed, is that the specialist teacher, in his enthusiasm for his subject, may, and if uncurbed, usually does, set too much homework, forgetting the other subjects for which preparation has to be done. The result is far too much homework. One way of meeting this danger is for the monitor in each class, or the literary member of the class committee in each class, to have a note-book in which he has the total time to be spent on homework and the time allotted to each subject written in front. In this, each day each teacher notes the homework he

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is setting, and thus teachers have before them at a glance the work that has been set in other subjects and even the first in the field is reminded that there are others to come and that he has only a certain time on which he can make demands.

All pupils, of course, do not work at the same pace, but the teacher will naturally take a pupil who works at an average rate and base the amount of the home-work he sets to be done in a certain time on what such a pupil can do.

The following is how a page of a monitor's home-work note-book might appear. (Class X.)

Subject	Time allotted	Work set	Signature of teacher
English ...	1 hour	Prepare two pages of text-book. Half an hour's work on composition assignment.	A. G. A. G.
History ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Work on assignment.	W. P. M.
Geography ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Work on assignment.	W. P. M.
Urdu ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Prepare three pages of text-book.	F. H.
Persian ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Work on grammar assignment.	F. H.
Science ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Work on assignment. Write up experiment done in school.	T. S.
Mathematics ...	$\frac{1}{2}$ hour	Learn proposition 7. Work out exercise No. 2.	W. R.

In this allotment history and geography are on alternate days and Persian and science are alternatives. The total time to be spent on homework is 3 hours. The class is the class preparing for Matriculation.

DETENTION

Detention can be a valuable means for dealing with those pupils who bring homework carelessly done or neglect to do what has been set for homework. It is a natural punishment for the crime in that it ensures that the work not done, will be done; and associates disagreeable consequences with careless and bad work. For it will probably be admitted by all that detention is a disagreeable institution to both pupils and teachers, but especially to pupils.

Pupils should not be put into detention for misconduct, or indeed for any reason except the two mentioned above. For these two shortcomings it is a reasonable punishment and can be recognized as such. If it is used as a punishment for misconduct there is no particular connexion between crime and punishment for one thing, and also it is using school work (for in detention work must always be set) as a punishment, which is a dangerous thing, and apt to set up bad associations with the work in question. Detention should be reserved as a place for making up what has not been done.

It is not necessary for detention to be very long. The time will depend on local circumstances. Probably about three-quarters of an hour is most suitable. It should certainly not be a shorter period than half an hour. It should be held every day, or at least on five days in the week. A teacher must be in charge, and there should be a rota arranged so that teachers take it in turn to be

charge. They can employ the time for correction work if they wish, though of course proper supervision must be kept.

A register should be kept in which, during the day, each teacher who wishes pupils to go into detention enters the names along with the class and the work that he has given them to do in detention. He will also sign the entry. The teacher in charge of detention will call the roll and report to the headmaster any absentees. As far as possible, written work should be set for work in detention. It is much easier to supervise, and makes it easier to check what has been done. Each boy before leaving the detention room should get the signature of the teacher in charge on the work he has done.

WEEKLY REPORTS

It is very difficult for the headmaster to get an adequate idea of what attention is being paid to weaker pupils in different classes, and also of what efforts the pupils are making themselves. As a spur to such pupils, as a spur also to the teacher, and as a means of getting a bird's-eye view of what the pupil has been doing, or has not been doing, in all subjects, the weekly report is of great value. A form of weekly report is shown on the next page.

This is given to weak pupils or to pupils who are not exerting themselves. The headmaster decides on the recommendations of teachers, on his own observation, and on the examination results of the previous term,

WEEKLY REPORT

This is to be given to those who have done unsatisfactory work or have not worked properly, and is to be handed, filled in, to the headmaster on Monday morning each week..

Name..... House.....

Attendance : { Total attendances..... Class.....
Possible attendances.....

Subject		Marks for written work			Oral work in class	General remarks and recommendations of teacher
		1	2	3		
English	A.					
	B.					
Mathematics	...					
Urdu	...					
Persian	...					
Science	...					
Agriculture	...					
History	...					
Geography	...					
Drawing	...					
Rural Science	...					
Hand-work	{ Tailoring					
	{ Carpentry					
	{ Weaving					

Remarks of House Tutor.....

Recommendations of Class Committee.....

which pupils in each class need special attention. These pupils are then put on the weekly report list. Towards the end of each week they get a blank report form from the school office, and on the last day of the week they get this filled in and signed by their teachers. Each pupil must get his report signed by each teacher with whom he has work. These reports are then handed in at roll-call on Monday morning and the headmaster goes over them at his leisure. Where he finds bad work or no work being done he can take such further measures as he thinks fit.

As a result a weekly report should not be given for a definite period, though a minimum, except in exceptional cases, would be four weeks. But pupils should understand that as soon as they begin to pull up and to work well, the report will stop. The headmaster will in each case judge when the report can be dispensed with. It has to be impressed on teachers, especially on junior teachers, that a fair and just opinion is to be given and that this is for the real benefit of the pupil. It does the pupil no real good to give him a good report if he is not working well, just to save him from having to make a weekly report.

PROGRESS REPORTS

Progress reports are reports in permanent form which are kept in the school and are sent with the pupil to another school if he goes to another school, or are given to the pupil when he finally leaves school. They are in

of various sorts is much simpler than if the number is odd. The number of houses will depend on the number of pupils in the school, but the number of pupils in a house should not exceed sixty or seventy. The houses will be perpendicular divisions, there being boys from every class in each house. There should be at least two teachers in charge of each house, who will be house tutors and whose duty it will be to get into as close touch as possible with the individual members of their houses. They will act as guides and helpers.

Each house should have its own organization with a house committee and a president, secretary and such other officers as may be desired, all elected by the house. The tutors should leave the members of the house as much freedom as possible in managing their own affairs. There should be regular meetings of houses. In a day school or semi-day school these may be arranged for by a short period of ten or fifteen minutes being assigned once or twice a week at some suitable time during the day as a break from ordinary work, and a longer period may be given at the end of school on the Saturday half-holiday. These periods may be devoted to anything connected with the welfare, organization and activities of the house. The longer meeting may be used for a literary programme, debates, papers, dramatics and so on. Outsiders may occasionally be asked in to give talks on any subject in which the house is interested.

As will be suggested in the chapter on games (see Chapter X) the house organization can be very use-

fully employed in connexion with competitions in games. It is also of great use in connexion with sports, in training pupils to compete for their house and not for themselves. On sports' day points are awarded to the house to which those placed in races belong, and the competition becomes one between houses and not between individuals. The house organization may also be used for competition in school work both in classes and in the school as a whole.

The house organization will overshadow the class organization in many ways. In each class there will be members of all houses, and so there will be a tendency to break up the class unity. While the class organization is useful in some ways, more especially in the lower classes, the house system has many advantages over it and is more useful. As is suggested in Chapter XV, each house should have its parents' day and exhibition of work.

LIBRARIES

There should be two distinct libraries in a school : one the staff library which is maintained and replenished by contributions from the staff and from the management of the school ; the other the pupils' library which is maintained and replenished by the library fees paid by the pupils and by contributions from the management.

It is very necessary for the headmaster and the staff to see that the staff library is kept up to date *and used*. The different faculties should keep in touch with new

books coming out in connexion with their particular subjects, and should make recommendations, through the staff meeting, of books to be purchased for the library. The headmaster should do his best to ensure that a continual stream of new books flows into the library even though it may not be a stream of great volume. He should also do his best to see that books are read.

The pupils' library may be organized in one of two ways. Either all the books for all classes may be assembled and kept in one room, the reading room, or library; or the class library system may be used where each class has its own library in its own room. It is possible also to combine both systems.

Where subject rooms are used it is rather difficult to employ the system whereby each class has its own library in its own room. It can be done by assigning, as has already been suggested, different subject rooms to different classes as their class rooms. It is possible however to have all the books in one reading room or library with the books for different classes kept separately in different cupboards. That is, the books are divided into class libraries but are all kept in one room. This has the advantage that when the room is used by any class for silent reading, those pupils who are weak may be given books belonging to the library of the class below them, and those who are exceptionally good may be given books from the library of the class ahead of them. In this way there is a saving of expense as each class library

does not have to cover such a large range as it would have to do if it were an isolated unit. The reading room has this additional advantage that books of reference, magazines, newspapers and periodicals can be made available for everybody there. It is difficult to do this if the system of separate class libraries is used, and if there is no reading room. It is possible to have both the separate class libraries in class rooms and a reading room as well, but this system is more expensive and means a far greater outlay in books. A general library for pupils, with no attempt to classify books according to classes, is not to be recommended.

Some attempt should be made to create an atmosphere in the reading room, and it should be full of pictures as well as of books. It may also be used for dramatics as occasion arises.

SYLLABUSES

At the beginning of each term each teacher should prepare a syllabus of work for the term for each class which he is teaching. This syllabus must be approved by the headmaster, and should be hung up on the wall of the room where the teaching is done. This syllabus should be prepared in some detail. It is not adequate, nor of any value, simply to list a number of pages or lessons which are to be taught during the course of the term. Some attempt must be made to give a fairly definite outline of the work which is to be done. Otherwise the teaching is apt to be a very hand-to-mouth

affair. Each teacher should have, before the term starts, a very definite plan of what he is going to teach, and that plan is his syllabus. With an English class, for instance, on the grammar and composition side, the teacher will have definite portions of grammar, a definite list of usages, a definite list of exercises, a definite list of subjects for essays or paragraphs with which he hopes to deal. These things should be carefully written up in his syllabus. A science teacher will have certain definite rules and principles, definite experiments and practical work with which he hopes to deal, and so on. These will form his syllabus. It is better for the syllabus to err on the side of being too detailed than for it to be too general.

If a system of assignments is being used, then the syllabus will be the file of assignments which the teacher expects the normal pupil to cover during the term.

Sometimes it is a help for teachers to keep diaries. In these the syllabus for the year is first written out, then the syllabus for each term is made out at the beginning of the term and written up in the diary. At the end of each week the teacher writes in the diary a brief summary of the work which he has completed during the week. Such diaries help to regularize the work and to enable the teacher to check the progress he is making, especially after a year or two when he has material to which he can refer. They also enable the headmaster to keep a check on what is being done.

Another scheme that is sometimes adopted is for teachers to be required to write up summaries of lessons—lesson notes—in their diaries before teaching the lessons, instead of making a summary of the work done at the end of the week. This method is useful in the case of new and young teachers. In any such schemes however care has to be taken to see that the teacher is not overburdened with work.

EXAMINATIONS¹

External examinations and their usefulness, necessity, form, and harmfulness are outside the scope of this book. Internal examinations, however, form part of the work and organization of every school, and there can be no question as to their necessity. Their harmfulness can be greatly mitigated if they are used in a common-sense way.

There are two main principles which ought to guide us in giving an examination. In the first place we ought to set out to try to find out how much the pupil knows, not how much he does not know. In the second place we ought to try to test not so much the pupil's knowledge of facts, as his ability to use facts; that is, his ability to act and to think for himself. For this reason the type of examination where the pupil is allowed to take into the examination any book or other help he wishes to are to be recommended. The style of paper set of course will be rather different from that usually set.

¹ See W. M. Ryburn, *The Progressive School*, Chapter XV, (Oxford University Press).

In a school, examinations should be looked on as opportunities for revision and of checking up on how much has been accomplished. They should be short and more of the nature of tests at the end of a week or a fortnight than the set ordeals that are so common. Under departmental rules it is necessary to have term examinations, but they need not be the bogeys that they so often are. They may be made part of the ordinary work of the week, and then lose most of their power to do harm. There will be little fault to be found with examinations if they conform to the two principles given above.

In seeking to follow out the first of these principles, namely, that an examination should be to find out what the pupil knows rather than what he does not know, a great deal can be said for the oral examination. The boy whose imperfect knowledge of English led him to write in a history paper a long answer on the Reformation when the question asked for information about the Restoration would have done much better if the examination had been an oral one. He certainly would not have lost all marks on the question because of his initial lack of knowledge. Many, many such cases might be cited, where in a written paper a candidate scores very poor marks, whereas if it had been an oral examination with an examiner anxious to find out how much the examinee really knew, he would have scored much higher marks. It is not possible to give oral examinations in external examinations, but we can do a great

deal of it in school, and it is much more satisfactory both for teacher and pupil. At least the latter knows that he has had every chance. There are those pupils whom nervousness affects adversely and who therefore might not do themselves justice in an oral examination. The teacher can use his discretion in such cases and give written work.

Attempts are being made to evolve a type of paper which will ensure fairer marking than is possible under the ordinary system in vogue. The teacher who is interested in this new type of examination paper is recommended to read Dr Ballard's book, *The New Examiner*.¹ He will find there many suggestions for a more definite type of question which can be marked more definitely, without the element of personal judgement coming into play.

There are three main types of such questions.

1. *The true-false test.*—A large number of statements are written down some of which are true and some of which are false. The examinee is required to write down 'Yes' opposite those which are true and 'No' opposite those which are false. For example, in history we might have such statements as follow :

Baber defeated Ibrahim Lodi at the second battle of Panipat.

Baber was invited to invade India.

He was severely defeated by Rana Sanga.

¹ University of London Press.

His dynasty was wiped out at his death.

He was noted in his day for his clemency.

The answers to such questions can be marked as definitely as can be the answers to sums in arithmetic. To deal with guessing, pupils may be told that they are to deal with only those statements about which they are sure. If they write down wrong answers they will score a minus mark.

Along with such a test it is advisable to give an oral test as well. If that is done, a much more accurate estimate of a class will be obtained than by an ordinary essay type of paper.

2. *Filling in blanks*.—In this type of question the examinee is required to fill in blanks. The completed passage is to make good history, good geography or good English as the case may be.

For example in history we might have such a passage as follows :—

Clive returned to India in——. He fought the battle of——in——and defeated Siraj-ud-Daula. As a result the English obtained possession of——.

3. *Selection*.—There are several ways in which this type of question may be set. A number of things may be given in a list and statements about them given in another list which does not correspond in order with the first list. The examinee is required to connect the statement with the thing to which it applies.

As an example in English grammar :

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Noun. | 5. Tells us something about |
| 2. Transitive verb. | something. |
| 3. Adjective. | 6. Joins two sentences together. |
| 4. Conjunction. | 7. Is the name of a thing. |
| | 8. Can be used in the passive. |

The answers will be 1-7, 2-8, 3-5, 4-6.

Another form of selection is when a number of alternatives are given, and one has to be selected to fill in a blank or to complete a sentence. The examinee is asked to underline the correct word.

March is the name of a day, food, month, week, year.

The Ganges is in Arabia, China, India, Ceylon.

Such types of questions and examinations are an attempt to get more fairness and accuracy into marking. They deal with facts to a large extent and are not very useful from the point of view of our second principle, namely, testing the power of the pupil to think for himself and act for himself. This can only be done by giving him something to do or to work out and by framing questions so that memory work is of as little value as possible. The personal element in the marking will always be present in such examinations, but this is not very harmful in internal examinations, where the teacher should take into account his knowledge of the pupil and his work and ability.

DIVIDING CLASSES INTO SECTIONS

The question is sometimes raised, when it becomes

necessary to divide a class into two sections, as to whether one section should have all the good pupils and the other section all the weak pupils, or whether there should be a mixture in both.

Teachers do not generally like to be given the section which has all the weak pupils if that method of division has been adopted. They are afraid that the inspector will not understand how the division has been made and that they will therefore suffer. They often have reason for this fear. It is also objected that to divide the pupils in this way is to create in the pupils in the B division, where the weak pupils are, the feeling of inferiority, and the corresponding feeling of superiority in the A division where the good ones are. In spite of these objections, however, it is almost always better to divide a class so that the good pupils are in one division, and the weaker ones are in the other section. It is admittedly somewhat hard on the teachers of the B section, but if the subject-teacher system is used the teachers would have to teach them anyway. It is much better for teaching purposes to have the sections as uniform as possible. If a teacher does not like teaching weak pupils he will neglect them if he has a section where good and weak are mixed. If the possibility of changes from the B section to the A section and vice versa is kept before the pupils, they have an incentive to work, and in actual practice the inferiority is no more marked than among individual pupils in the same class.

VIII

THE BOARDING-HOUSE

THE SUPERINTENDENT

PERHAPS the most important part of the work connected with a boarding-house is the supervision. We have already touched on this in connexion with the work of the headmaster (see pages 27-9). He is ultimately responsible for the discipline of the boarding-house and for the boarding-house arrangements. But naturally he depends to a very great extent on whomever is in charge of the boarding-house. In some places a deplorable system is in vogue, and encouraged by Government, of having teachers who are already doing full-time work in school in charge of the boarding-houses. And this they are required to do without the inducement of any extra pay. Whether departments which follow such a policy are attempting to instil a high ethical standard in their teachers or whether it is just plain parsimony, there is no doubt that from the point of view of education, and organization, it is a very bad policy. Unless a boarding-house is very small, or unless it is run according to the cottage system, which we will discuss later, if it is to be well organized and well run, and worthy of an educational institution, there must be a full-time superintendent whose whole time is devoted to the work of organizing the boarding-house and to individual work with the pupils in it.

A boarding-house superintendent's work is extremely arduous, needs a great deal of tact, patience, and psychological knowledge and skill, and is certainly a full-time job if it is done properly. Many people can testify from their experience that it is too much to ask a teacher who has his full day's work in school to take charge of a boarding-house of a hundred or so pupils as an extra. It simply means that both teaching and boarding-house suffer. This is where a big boarding-house is under the control of one man, which is the type of boarding-house commonly found. In such boarding-houses a full-time superintendent is necessary.

DUTIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

1. *General supervision.*—The superintendent naturally must supervise all the arrangements of the boarding-house and all its activities. This should be done regularly and according to a planned system. He must keep an eye on how pupils employ their leisure. He has to take all measures possible to enable the pupils to develop morally as well as mentally. The boarding-house has to take the place of the home for a great many days of the year, and the superintendent has to do his best to fill the place of the parents and to give the help and guidance that the pupils would normally get from their parents. He has to see that as far as possible the boarding-house loses the 'institutional' atmosphere and becomes a substitute for home, not too far removed from the real thing. He has to take an interest in the physical

activities of pupils, in their hobbies, and in their work. Nothing that will help his charges to develop morally, mentally, and physically is outside his purview. If the school is one where religion is taken into account, the superintendent will also have the care of the religious life and development of the pupils in the boarding-house as one of his concerns.

2. *Living conditions in the boarding-house.*—It is part of the superintendent's work to see that the living conditions in the boarding-house are what they ought to be, and that pupils are not allowed to get into bad habits, but on the contrary are helped to cultivate good habits. He must see that there is sufficient ventilation in the dormitories, that windows and doors are kept open at night, and windows open during the day. He should see that where possible beds are put out in the sun at least three times a week, and that they are neatly made. He should pay attention to the neatness of the rooms and to the way in which they are kept. He should be very severe on any slovenliness in the way in which belongings are kept, and on dirtiness and untidiness in cupboards. He should be always on the look-out to help his pupils to cultivate habits of tidiness. He should see that every pupil has a cupboard, that it is used, and used rightly. Each pupil should have a dirty clothes bag, and it should be used.

The superintendent must see that the sanitary arrangements in the hostel are up to the mark, that latrines are in order, and that they are used. He must keep his eye

on the drainage and at once report any fault in it. He must regularly inspect the washing places and see that they are kept clean. He must keep his eye on the arrangements for washing dishes and eating-vessels, and see that they are up to the mark. He must pay special attention to the kitchen and the cooking arrangements, and to the arrangements for keeping food and stores. The hostel godown should be regularly inspected. He must exercise general supervision over the servants and their work, as well as over the pupils' committee if one is in existence.

3. *Supervision of food*—One of the most important duties of the superintendent is in connexion with the food of the pupils living in the boarding-house. The superintendent should in all cases make a study of the subject of diets and find out what is the best diet for his pupils according to the part of India in which the school is situated, and according to the food which is available. He has to take into consideration the values of different kinds of food, the amount of protein, fat and carbohydrate in the food eaten by the pupils, the number of calories supplied to them by their food and the presence or absence of different vitamins. It is not possible here to go into the question of diet in detail. I cannot do better than to recommend to every headmaster and every boarding-house superintendent Dr R. McCarrison's little book *Food*.¹ This book is written

¹ Robert McCarrison, *Food*, p. 113 (Macmillan).

especially for use in schools, colleges, Boy Scout and Girl Guide organizations, and so on, in India. It deals entirely with Indian conditions and Indian foods, and is invaluable for all who have anything to do with the food arrangements for boys and girls. I quote the example which he gives of a well-balanced diet for a man, a diet which is in use in Northern India.

<i>Atta</i>	12 oz.
Rice : home-pounded	..	6	„
Meat (Mutton)	..	2	„
Milk	..	20	„
Vegetable oil	..	1	„
<i>Ghi</i>	..	1.5	„
Root vegetables	..	8	„
Cabbage	..	8	„
Mango	..	4	„
<i>Dhal</i>	..	1	„

This is a daily diet. From Dr McCarrison's book will be found what foods can be substituted in this where any of the foods mentioned are not available. For those who do not eat meat the two ounces of meat can be cut out of the above diet, and in its place one more ounce of *dhal* may be given and also two or three more ounces of milk. This will mean a slight decrease in protein but an increase in carbohydrates and in the total number of calories.

It will be noticed that there is a comparatively large amount of milk in the diet. Milk is the best all-round food that can be given. It contains proteins, fats and

carbohydrates, supplies from 18¹ to 30² calories per ounce and also supplies vitamins A, B, C, and D, being rich in A. No diet should be without a large amount of milk. In rural areas this can be easily arranged by the boarders keeping their own cow or cows.

In this connexion it is also part of the boarding-house superintendent's duty to see that the water supply is good and that there is no danger of contamination of the water. Wells used in the boarding-house should be regularly cleaned and disinfected. Suitable arrangements should be made for drinking-water in the boarding-house itself, especially in the hot weather. Vessels used for this purpose should be kept covered and clean.

THE COTTAGE SYSTEM OF BOARDING-HOUSE ORGANIZATION

Before going on to consider the organization of the ordinary type of boarding-house, we shall consider briefly the system known as the cottage system. This is the system that is recommended for all new boarding-houses and for old ones where changes can be made. It is really an adaptation of the old house system found in English public schools, but is in many ways an improvement on this old system. Under the cottage system, the boarding-house does not consist of a number of dormitories all in one building, but is made up of a number of small buildings, built more or less close together and constituting a small village. In each

¹ Cow's milk.

² Buffalo's milk.

building or 'cottage' there are accommodated from eight to twelve boarders. The number will vary with local conditions, but should not be more than fifteen. These twelve boarders or so live in their own cottage. To each cottage is attached a teacher's quarters. Each cottage has its dormitory for the pupils to sleep in and a dining room which can also be used for study and recreation. Each cottage also has a kitchen. The pupils and the teacher (and his wife if he is married) live together as one big family. This is, in fact, what is aimed at by the method of organization, namely, the establishment in the boarding-house of the family principle. By this method of arrangement the teacher is brought into much closer contact with his or her children than is usually the case, and it is possible to reproduce many of the important principles of family life which are usually lost in an institution. The institutional atmosphere is broken down.

Naturally, living thus as a family, all members take a share in the work of the cottage home just as they would do in their own homes, or as they ought to do in their own homes. The cleaning of the cottage, the beautifying of the cottage, the care of the cottage garden, the cooking, the buying of provisions, all this can be done by the members of the cottage under the guidance of the teacher. It will be readily understood what great educational advantages such a system offers. Where it is not possible for children themselves to go to the bazaar to buy things it is sometimes possible to make arrangements for people from the bazaar to bring things

on one or two days in the week and have a small bazaar in the compound.

Under this system it is possible for children of different ages to live together, a measure that is sometimes fraught with danger in the larger dormitory form of boarding-house, where supervision is not close. In the cottage older children learn to take an interest in younger ones, and to help them in various ways.

The number of such cottages will depend on the number of pupils and on the finances available. If in a rural area, the school should naturally be in the middle of the group of cottages, though this is not essential. It is obvious that the adoption of such a system would mean the scrapping of existing plant in many cases. This is not often possible. But if a new hostel is being built, and sufficient land is available, the initial expense of such an arrangement is not very much greater than that involved in the erection of the usual type of boarding-house, if the fact is taken into consideration that teachers' quarters are also being provided in the plan. Those who are thinking of building new boarding-houses should seriously consider the many advantages of this system. Even in boarding-houses of the older type, it is often possible with a few changes to incorporate some if not all of the features of the cottage system. Any advance that can be made towards this ideal is worth while.

Let us deal now with the organization of the ordinary type of boarding-house.

THE BUILDING

If at all possible the boarding-house should be a building put up for the purpose. Rented buildings which were erected for some other purpose are rarely satisfactory. Rooms are not big enough, supervision is difficult. They are usually situated at a distance from the school, sanitary arrangements are usually not satisfactory, and internal organization is usually much more difficult. The boarding-house should be in the school compound at a sufficient distance from the school, and, if possible, away from a main road. If possible the school should front on to the road and the boarding-house should be behind it, with playing fields or gardens between. The design of the building will depend on the site available, on local circumstances, and on the amount of money available. The best type of building is the single-storey one, built in the form of a quadrangle with a courtyard in the middle. Whatever the type of building it ought to be such that it can be enclosed and shut up at night or when necessary. If the quadrangular form is used this is easily done. In that form the superintendent's quarters should be at the gateway on one side, with an office, and a reading and study room on the other side. This will form the front of the quadrangle with the main gateway in the middle. The other three sides will then be divided into dormitories. These should accommodate from 12 to 20 pupils. It is preferable from the point of view of supervision not to have more than 20 in a dormitory. There should be 50

to 60 square feet per pupil. The height of the dormitories should be sixteen or seventeen feet. They should be wide enough to take a double row of beds, one down each side at right angles to the walls, with a passage in the middle between the rows. There should be an almirah for each pupil. Those built into the wall are the cheapest and the most satisfactory. Each pupil should have a chair and a table. Care should be taken to see that lighting arrangements are good, especially in study and reading rooms. Pupils should not be allowed to work with bad smoky lamps. It is better not to allow individual lamps, though sometimes in the case of older pupils working for examinations, it is difficult to avoid this.

There should be plenty of windows and *roshandans*. These should have shades when they are on the sunny side. There should be a verandah on the inner side of the quadrangle going right round the four sides. Floors should be made of brick or cement.

The kitchen and dining room or rooms may be placed at the back, outside the quadrangle. The dining room may, if preferred, be one of the rooms at the back of the quadrangle with a door opening outside towards the kitchen. Care should be taken to see that arrangements for washing dishes are satisfactory, and that drainage is such that water is carried away, or led into gardens or to fruit trees. Adequate washing rooms should be erected at the back at the opposite end of the back side of the quadrangle. Septic tank latrines should be erected

at the back of the quadrangle at the same end as that at which the washing rooms are placed. If a septic tank is used, the approach to these latrines can be from inside the quadrangle. If bore-hole latrines are used they must be at some distance from the boarding-house. In this case some arrangement for night latrines has to be made. In addition, on the kitchen side of the block of buildings, there should be servants' quarters and rooms for storing food and fuel.

It must always be remembered that the boarding-house is taking the place of the home for a considerable portion of the pupils' year, and it should therefore be made as attractive as possible. The courtyard can be beautified with trees and gardens, and no effort should be spared to make the rooms as cheerful as possible. Pictures should be freely used, and the boarders encouraged to make their boarding-house as comfortable and homelike as possible.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION

Pupils will be assigned to their dormitories and given definite places in their dormitory. The name of each pupil should be neatly written on paper and pasted on to his bed, almirah, chair, and table. He should not be allowed to change his place without permission of the superintendent. A list of those living in a dormitory should be posted on a small notice board, which can be built into the wall, outside the dormitory. Each pupil should be responsible for seeing that his bed clothes

are neatly arranged every morning. The superintendent should lay down a uniform way of arranging clothes on beds. Each pupil should have a bag for dirty clothes. On at least three days in the week, if weather permits, all beds should be placed outside in the sun. The pupils in each dormitory should be responsible for seeing to the cleanliness of their dormitory. Even if a servant is kept, the pupils should be responsible for seeing that the work is properly done and that windows, walls, and floor are kept clean. No food should be allowed in the dormitories. Arrangements for drinking-water may be made outside the rooms on the verandah.

A monitor should be elected in each dormitory to be in charge of the dormitory. Just as a self-government scheme is very beneficial in the school, so also it can be very useful in the boarding-house. A committee may be elected by the boarders to deal with all matters of organization, discipline, buying of food, and general arrangements in the boarding-house. They may refer matters to the superintendent as necessary, but should be encouraged to manage their own affairs as far as possible.

The superintendent will work through and with this committee in every way possible. All such matters as the cleanliness and beautifying of the boarding-house, checking up the work of dormitory monitors, keeping accounts, arranging for special meetings, checking attendance at drill and study periods, and general matters of discipline may be placed in the hands of this

committee. The superintendent of course, will have to supervise, but this should be done as tactfully as possible, with a real desire to create a feeling of responsibility in the members of the committee.

There should be a short period for physical exercise first thing in the morning. The boarders may be divided up into groups under dormitory monitors or other leaders, under the supervision of the superintendent. In such institutions as allow it, the superintendent will conduct daily prayers, either morning or evening.

There should also be a special period for study and preparation. If the boarding-house has a reading and study room, then pupils will all assemble in this room every day for supervised study. The length of the period will vary with the class, from one hour to two and a half hours. If the boarding-house has no study room, one or two of the school rooms may be used for the purpose. As has been mentioned, special attention must be paid to lighting arrangements. The superintendent is responsible for the attendance of boarders at this period of supervised study, but the members of the school staff should take it in turns to supervise the study and to give help where required by pupils. In winter this study period may be in the evening, in summer it may be in the afternoon. Arrangements for punkahs should be made in the hot weather. Day pupils should be encouraged to attend this study period, whether it is held in the boarding-house or in school. If any individual

work scheme with assignments is being used, teachers may arrange to be present during part of this period to test and correct assignments in connexion with their particular subjects.

The superintendent should make out a time-table for the boarding-house and it should be posted on the main notice board. He should be careful to see that punctuality is observed and that the time-table is not just a matter of show.

Along with this time-table should be posted the rules for the boarding-house. These will deal with important matters, and need not include those things which may be taken for granted. The time-table will set out the times for roll-call, meals, lights out, play periods, study period and so on. The rules should deal with those matters which are essential for the good conduct of the boarding-house as a community of people living together. But though there should not be too many rules, such rules as there are should be closely observed. The superintendent should be especially careful in the matter of the observation of the time-table and in seeing that all pupils get the amount of time for sleep that they ought to. The minimum amount of sleep for any boarder should be eight hours and for younger pupils there should be more time for sleep. The following are the sort of rules which might be posted :

1. On admission to the boarding-house every boarder shall be required to pay Rs. 7 in advance for food and also a security fee of Rs. 2. The latter will be returned

to the boarder on his leaving the boarding-house finally, any necessary deductions having been made.

2. If boarders have any money or valuables they should be handed to the superintendent for safe keeping. The superintendent will keep a special account of such money.

3. If any boarder wilfully or through negligence destroys property belonging to the boarding-house he shall be required to make good such damage.

4. It shall be the duty of every boarder to see that his bedding, almirah, clothes and other things are kept neat and clean. Every boarder is required to provide himself with a bag for his dirty clothes.

5. Weather permitting, all beds are to be placed outside on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday each week. The beds are to be uniformly made according to the instructions of the superintendent.

6. No food is to be kept in any room, almirah or box. Any extras are to be handed to the superintendent and will be kept in the food store.

7. All smoking and use of intoxicants is forbidden in the boarding-house.

8. Boarders are not to leave the boarding-house without the permission of the superintendent. Boarders are not to change their places in the boarding-house without the permission of the superintendent.

9. Physical drill for 10 minutes every morning is compulsory. Permission of the superintendent is to be obtained for exemption.

10. No boarder is to have a guest in the boarding-house without permission from the superintendent.

11. No boarder shall open an account with any shop-keeper or have any pecuniary dealings with any other boarder. All financial dealings with anyone shall be conducted through the superintendent.

12. All boarders are required to co-operate with the committee elected annually and to help them in their work. The orders of the committee are to be obeyed. Boarders shall have the right of appeal from the decision of the committee, in serious cases, to the superintendent.

13. Only those boarders who have been in the boarding-house for six months shall be eligible for a place on this committee and for voting for the members of this committee.

14. No boarder is permitted to be in the boarding-house during school hours except with the permission of the headmaster.

REGISTERS

The superintendent should keep the following registers:

1. *A property register.*—In this, in the same way as in the school property register, there should be a list of all property belonging to the boarding-house. Every article added to the boarding-house should be entered up, with the cost and date and the source from which the article came. This list should be regularly checked by the superintendent and occasionally by the headmaster. No article should be struck off this list without

the sanction of the managing committee. Old things should be sold if possible, and the proceeds credited to the boarding-house funds. As in the case of the school property register, if it is kept room-wise, checking is made much easier.

2. *An admission register.*—This will give the names and addresses of the boarders and the date of their admission as well as the date of their withdrawal.

3. *A roll book.*—In this daily attendance will be marked. The roll should be called and marked twice a day, once in the morning, and once in the evening. Reasons for absence should be given in the book where absence occurs.

4. *A security account book.*—In this an account is kept of the money paid in as security fee by each boarder on entering the boarding-house. Enough room should be left under each name for items which are to be debited to be entered up. There may be a separate page for each boarder. A general account should also be kept. A savings bank account should be opened for this fund.

5. *A mess account book.*—This is an account book for the buying of food. The method of keeping this will depend on the local arrangements, and on whether pupils are doing their own buying of food or not. If they are, they should be working according to a definite budget, and the superintendent will keep an account of how they draw sums from him. The detailed accounts will be kept by the committee, under the superintendent's supervision. Otherwise the superintendent will

have to keep the detailed account. There should be a post office savings bank account opened for money collected and used.

6. *A fee account book*.—This will be an account of fees received and of how paid out. If they are paid into the school and banked with the school fees, procedure is easy. If not, a post office savings account should be opened and the fee money deposited in the bank each month.

7. *A cash book*.—This should be kept in the same way as the school cash book, all items of expenditure and all receipts being entered up each day. The entries will, of course, tally with the bank book entries of the various accounts.

8. *A committee register*.—If there is a committee of pupils, they should have a register for recording all proceedings of the committee. These should be entered up regularly after each meeting.

HEALTH

We have already pointed out that one of the important duties of the superintendent is to care for the health of the boarders. We are dealing with the general matter of health in Chapter IX, but there are several things which have special reference to the boarding-house. As pointed out in the chapter on health, there should be, if at all possible, a school nurse. The nurse will make a daily inspection of the boarders and deal with such cases as can be dealt with by a nurse, serious

cases being referred to the doctor. If there is no nurse, the superintendent himself can conduct a daily inspection. He should keep records of the temperature of any with fever, and can dispense simple remedies. Every boarding-house however, should have the services of a doctor. The doctor should be given a regular monthly allowance and in return be expected to attend to boarding-house pupils either at the hospital, if he is a Government doctor, or at his rooms if in private practice, whenever necessary. In serious cases he will be available to visit the boarding-house.

Every boarding-house should have a sick room. This should, if possible, be at some distance from the boarding-house so that it may be used for isolation purposes in the case of an epidemic. It is very difficult to deal with cases of serious illness or even with mild attacks if there are no such facilities as can be made available with a sick room. In cases of infectious diseases it is essential for the general health of those in the boarding-house.

The superintendent should see that the boarders are regularly vaccinated. This will be done in conjunction with the teacher in the school who is responsible for the vaccination of all the pupils in the school and keeps the vaccination register. In cases of epidemics of such diseases as plague and cholera the superintendent must see that all the pupils in the boarding-house are inoculated.

There should be a small dispensary in the boarding-house which can be looked after by members of the Red Cross Society if there is one, or by senior pupils if there is no Red Cross Society. This should be kept stocked with simple medicines such as castor oil, iodine, aspirin, boracic acid, sticking plaster and so on.

IX

HEALTH

HEALTH arrangements in a school are important for two reasons. One is that for the sake of the pupils themselves everything that can be done to ensure good health is of importance, and the second is that if proper measures are taken in school the pupils will grow up with healthy habits and thus a real attack will be made on the stronghold of disease in the country at large, and on all the things which cause disease.

We have already seen the opportunity which the boarding-house supplies for the carrying out of this work, and every advantage should be taken of this opportunity. There are other measures however, which ought to be taken in the school itself.

CLEANLINESS

Perhaps one of the most difficult things to obtain in a school is cleanliness. It also seems to be one of the hardest things to inculcate in the pupil, or at any rate in the village pupil. Very often, to be sure, conditions are against us. The everlasting and ever-present dust brings all our efforts for cleanliness to naught. The brick floor which is so common does not help matters. The habits and ways of the sweeper are not calculated to second our efforts. The pupils themselves have to be

inoculated with a feeling against dirt and untidiness. But however great the difficulties the effort must be made and the difficulties conquered.

In the first place the use of latrines must be strictly enforced. This is probably more a matter for village schools than for town ones. The village child is not accustomed to using latrines. He must be taught to do so, and taught why he is to do so. It is no use simply making the rule that the latrines are to be used and not explaining why the rule is made. The reason for the use of latrines must be explained, and committees and pupils themselves led to see the advantages of enforcing the rule. The best type of latrine is the septic tank type. They can be put up quite cheaply, and as long as there is a good water-supply, are much the best. Care has to be taken that during holidays, when the latrine is not being used, water is poured into it daily. Where there is not too much clay the bore-hole type of latrine is also quite good, and is very cheaply made. This is perhaps more suitable for rural areas. Where there is a regular drainage system of course there is no difficulty with latrines. The septic tank variety has the advantage that the latrine can be situated comparatively close to the school.

Attention has to be paid to the bad habit of spitting and cleaning the nose anywhere and everywhere. Again the danger and evil of this should be explained to the pupils and they themselves made to feel that it must be stopped. The pupils themselves through their

committees are the ones to do it. It is merely a bad habit, and can be stopped if sufficient attention is paid to it.

The pupils themselves again are the ones to see that the bad habit of throwing rubbish, old bits of paper, fruit skins and so on anywhere in the compound, is stopped. But the authorities can help matters by having dustbins with lids placed in two or three convenient places in the school compound. There is then no excuse for rubbish being thrown down anywhere, except into the receptacles provided. Classes may be given in turn the work of seeing to the cleanliness of the compound. One class will be on duty for a week, the next week another class and so on.

If a self-government system is being used the member of each class committee who is in charge of matters of cleanliness should inspect the class each morning at roll-call, or at any rate on several mornings in the week. He should look at clothes, faces, finger nails, teeth, and should demand a high standard. The tendency is for this inspection to become a formal thing when the committee member just passes along the line without really bothering about whether the pupils are clean or not. He should be severe and have no compunction in sending off offenders to make matters right either at their homes or at the school washing place. Pupils may be poor but there is no need for them to come to school in dirty clothes or with dirty nails or teeth. If no self-government system is being used, the class teachers should carry out the inspection.

Besides the personal cleanliness of the pupils there is the matter of the cleanliness of rooms and buildings. If a system of self-government is in force, the duty of seeing that the classroom is kept clean devolves on the committee member for cleanliness, with the help of the committee president. The presence of desks in a room always militates against its being properly cleaned. At least once a month, if not oftener, the class should clear the room of desks and give it a thorough spring-cleaning. It should be thoroughly swept, windows cleaned, doors cleaned and oiled, pictures dusted, walls and ceiling cleaned. If the whole class put themselves into the work, and if the work is divided out systematically, this spring-cleaning need not take long. If no committees are established, the class teacher will have to make arrangements for the work. In any case, committee or no committee, he will have to supervise the work, and take his share of it. If there are no class rooms, different subject rooms may be assigned to different classes for this work. Attention should be paid to the beautification of the rooms as well as to their cleanliness. An attractive room has an influence on those who work in it, on their health as well as on their characters..

The authorities should see that adequate washing places are provided. Though these must necessarily be near a well in places where water is not laid on, they should be at a short distance and should be so built that there is no danger of the dirty water going back into the well. The water should be taken away into the garden

or elsewhere by drains. The same applies to waste water from drinking places, and from the science room. It should be taken away by drains and allowed to flow into the garden. Where there is an adequate drainage system, of course, these difficulties do not exist.

It is important to see that adequate arrangements for drinking-water are made. Where water has to be brought from a well the place where the drinking-water is kept should be as cool as possible. Vessels in which drinking-water is kept should always be provided with lids, and should be regularly emptied and cleaned every day.

MEDICAL ATTENTION

There should be a regular, exhaustive medical inspection of every pupil in the school once a year. A record of the result should be kept in the school on a record sheet. The record sheet should be printed on durable paper so that the doctor can use the same sheet each year, and so have before him at a glance the previous medical history of the pupil. A form of such a sheet is shown on page 156.

Most schools are within reach of doctors nowadays. If in rural areas, or elsewhere, doctors are not available, except at some expense to the school, it might be possible for several schools to co-operate in the matter and secure the services of a doctor to examine their pupils once a year.

156 SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS

Date of birth _____ Sex _____ Guardian _____

Address _____

Name _____ Class _____

Date	...				
Age	...				
Height	...				
Weight	...				
General appearance	...				
Posture	...				
Temperature	...				
Pulse	Rate before exercise...				
	Rate after hopping				
	50 times				
	Rate 3 mins after exercise				
Blood Pressure	...				
Systolic	...				
Diastolic	...				
Circum. of chest	At rest				
	Full Insp.				
	Forced Exp.				
	Vital Capacity				
Head	...				
Eyes	...				
Visual defect	...				
General	...				
Ears	...				
Hearing	...				
General	...				
Nose	...				
Throat	...				
Mouth	...				
Skin	...				
Glands	...				
Vaccination	...				
Lungs	...				
Heart	...				
Abdomen	...				
Spleen	...				
Liver	...				
Genito-urinary	...				
Previous medical history	...				
Remarks	...				

This sort of scheme has been put into operation in Jullunder in the Punjab. Under this scheme a number of schools have combined and have formed a health committee. They have engaged a full-time doctor and have opened a dispensary. The committee then arranges for the inspection and medical treatment of the pupils of co-operating schools. The scheme is financed by the levy of a fee of Re. 1-8 per annum from all pupils in co-operating schools (middle and high departments) and by grants from the Local Government and from the Red Cross Association. Teachers are charged a higher fee of Rs. 3 per annum.

Under this scheme the doctor examines the pupils, and leaves instructions as to treatment. If necessary some of the treatment such as washing of eyes, ears, and so on may be carried out at the school. If treatment cannot be carried out in the school, pupils will be sent to the dispensary, and in serious cases to the civil hospital. This scheme is only feasible in places where there are a fairly large number of schools which can co-operate. Otherwise the financial burden is too heavy, and there would not be enough work for a full-time doctor.

In other places, where there are only one or two schools, fees may be taken in the same way and a doctor employed on part time to inspect the pupils and to treat those who need treatment. It is practically essential to have a doctor on a regular basis such as this in connexion with a boarding-house.

As well as the annual medical inspection, as has been pointed out in connexion with progress reports, a terminal record of weight and chest measurements will be kept by the class teacher. This will enable the teacher to keep an eye on things, and in case of urgency to send a pupil for medical treatment, if it seems necessary to do so.

When the doctor makes his annual inspection, where he finds that special treatment of any sort is needed, he will give particulars to the headmaster, who will communicate with the parents, and try to persuade them to have done what is necessary. This, of course, is the great value of the inspection.

As well as an annual medical inspection it is also an excellent thing to have an annual visit from a dentist if it can be arranged, especially if, in rural areas, he can bring his apparatus with him, and can do necessary fillings or extractions on the spot.

It is a great advantage to a school to have a school nurse, especially if there is a boarding-house in connexion with the school. Most education departments have not yet risen to the place where they will give any financial help for such work, but all will admit that it is very necessary and very advantageous. In a school and in a boarding-house there are so often things which a nurse can do, so often things which her attention can prevent from becoming more serious, and so much, if no hospital is available, nursing work to be done in boarding-house and homes, that her presence on the school staff is a

tremendous boon. It means of course an extra expense which schools cannot always undertake. But here again several schools in an area can co-operate, and though this would mean that each school would not get daily attention, it would at least get weekly attention, and could always call on the nurse in case of emergency. It is also possible sometimes to make arrangements with a number of parents whereby they contribute to the salary of the nurse and have the right to her services when necessary. In this way it is possible to finance a school nurse without much burden on the school finances. It is sometimes possible to get a boarding-house superintendent whose wife is a trained nurse, and who will do the work for an allowance. This is a good arrangement.

Vaccination should be carried out regularly, and a vaccination register should be maintained in the school giving the date when pupils were last vaccinated and whether the vaccination was successful or not. In the case of epidemics, arrangements should at once be made for the inoculation of all pupils. Teachers should also pay special attention to the eyes of their pupils. When they see that something is wrong they should at once send the pupil to the dispensary or to the nurse or to the doctor to have the eyes washed and attended to. Care here in initial stages of trouble can save much misery later.

Every school should have a Junior Red Cross Society. Its work will be described in Chapter XI. Besides

this the headmaster should try to arrange for regular lectures on health subjects either by teachers who know something of elementary matters connected with health, or better still by the local doctors. A great deal of good can be done in this way.

POSTURE

Bad posture is responsible for headaches, short sight, spinal curvature, flat chests and a general tendency to chest troubles. It is therefore important for the teacher to see that the posture of his pupils is right. It is chiefly in writing and reading lessons that there is a danger of bad posture. Good posture is largely a matter of common sense. The body should be so balanced as to produce least fatigue. It is necessary to have good desks (see pp. 201-2), and the pupil should sit straight, with the spine in a line with the head and with the work that is being done about a foot from the eyes.

X

PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

GAMES

GAMES should be so organized that every pupil may have a chance to play every day. This can be done by pupils being divided up into groups of from twenty to twenty-five, with a teacher or teachers in charge of each group. If sufficient ground is available the whole school may have games at the same time, the games' period being a regular period in the time-table, the last period of the day. This is by far the best arrangement. Where it is impossible to get sufficient ground for the whole school to play at the same time, one lot may have their games period in the middle of the 'afternoon's work and the rest at the end of the afternoon. Needless to say this is not so satisfactory as having all playing at the same time, at the end of the afternoon. If such an arrangement has to be made, the times should be changed each week. The groups which play in the middle of the afternoon one week, should, the next week, play at the end of the afternoon.

It may be as well to mention here the fact that it is necessary to organize games. Pupils cannot be left to themselves in this matter any more than in any other department of school work. They need help and guidance in this just as in other things. If left to them-

selves many pupils will not play, games will lose a great deal of value, they will be disorderly, and carried on in a haphazard way, and little real enjoyment or benefit will accrue to the pupils. It is essential that there be a teacher in charge of every group, and that there be regular programmes, just as there is a regular syllabus in school subjects.

The best games are those which enable all the players to take an active part in the game. Hockey, Association football, basketball, rugger touch are all excellent games. Volleyball takes little space and is valuable in teaching co-operation, but gives little exercise. Cricket is a good game for those who wish to specialize in it ; that is, for those who are good at, or keen on, some department of the game. But it is not a good game from the point of view of an attempt to provide exercise for every boy. It is not a good game for a general programme in which every boy is expected to take part. A special group may be formed of those who wish to take up the game and show promise. It is not a game which anyone can play and get good exercise. Even a duffer can get a considerable amount of exercise and enjoyment from a game of hockey or football, but a duffer at cricket usually has a most stale and unprofitable time. In organizing games then, it should be the aim of those who are making arrangements to choose such games as will give every pupil a chance to get interesting exercise.

In dividing pupils into groups, care should be taken to put those together in a group who are more or less

of equal skill. The small boy who is a good hockey player or a good football player, should not, because of his size, be kept out of a senior group. Ability should be the criterion, and not age or size or class. That is, of course, within limits. It does not do to put a very small boy in a group of big boys for football. Size does not matter quite so much in hockey. The same principle should apply to the assignment of teachers to groups. The best player should be in charge of the senior group whatever may be his position as regards seniority in the staff, which should not be taken into consideration.

Each teacher in charge of a group should have a pupil appointed to be group leader. The best plan is for the members of the group themselves to elect this leader. The leader should then be put in charge of the games material belonging to the group, and it will be his duty to compile a rota so that members of the group may take it in turns to bring out and put away the material required for the day. The teacher in charge and the group leader should together make out a weekly timetable of games. In order to economize grounds, two groups should synchronize their time-tables. For each two groups there may be one big ground and one small ground. While group A is playing hockey on the big ground Z, group B can be playing basketball on the small ground Y. The next day group B will have the use of the big ground Z and group A will use the small ground Y, and so on. In the same way groups C and D can work together with one big ground and one small

ground. Copies of these time-tables should be handed in to the headmaster at the beginning of the term, and a complete time-table for all the groups compiled and posted on the notice board. An example of such a time-table is given on page 99.

Each group should have its own equipment, its own hockey sticks, its own football and so on. If the expense of providing so much material is too heavy two groups may share a set of equipment. This is not, however, a very satisfactory arrangement. It is much better for each group to have its own equipment. It may be a strain on the sports fund to supply all this equipment when such a system is first started, but after two or three years it will be found to work quite easily. If it is desired to give pupils training in responsibility for material, each group may be allotted a sum from the sports fund for the year. They then know that they can spend up to this amount in the year on material, either buying from the school shop if there is one, or from the school co-operative society, or from the teacher who is in charge of games material. This teacher, or the co-operative society, will do the actual buying from the dealers, but each group will have a credit with the society or with the teacher up to the amount allotted to them, and they can take this out in material. They do not need to do any actual handling of money, but spend it just as if they did. If this sort of arrangement is adopted the pupils learn the value of what they use, and are more careful with it.

It is very important that teachers in charge of groups, themselves play with their groups, and take a keen interest in what is going on. It is hopeless for a teacher simply to stand at one side waiting for the period to come to an end. His games period will not be successful unless he takes a keen interest in the game that is being played, and puts his heart into playing or at least refereeing. Usually a teacher in charge, if he wishes to play, has both to play and referee. This can be done without difficulty, and it is important that the teacher should know the rules of the game he is playing or refereeing. Half the pleasure and value goes from a game if the refereeing is slack. The teacher has to be as careful here as in the classroom. He must prepare himself for his games, know them and take a keen interest in them. This is true for all groups whether they are of small pupils or of senior ones.

Besides the games which have been mentioned, there are numbers of minor games which may be used to give variety to the week's programme if so desired. Many scout games are of use here, and any manual of games will give the teacher suggestions for minor games which take little room and apparatus.¹ The teacher should also be alive to the use which can be made of

¹ Books which the author has found specially useful are :

Suggestions in Regard to Games (Board of Education, London).

C. E. Hodges, *The Book of School Games* (Evans Bros.).

J. H. Gray, *Indian Games* (Y.M.C.A. Publishing House, Calcutta).

Indian games which his pupils know and which can also be played on small grounds. Kabaddi is one of the best known of these. This is a good game if the new rules which have been suggested are adopted, and the practice of holding the breath is done away with, and a time limit substituted.

Besides this regular games programme, matches between the school teams and teams from other schools may be arranged either after school hours or on Saturdays. If the house system is in vogue, house tournaments may be kept going on one or two days in the week after school hours. These tournaments may include games between junior as well as senior teams from each house and should not be on the knock-out system. Every house should play every other house and score points for a win. That is, every senior team should play every other senior team and every junior team should play every other junior team. The same points should be awarded for a win whether it is by juniors or by seniors. The house getting most points, of course, wins the competition. Very keen interest is created in this way. A chart showing the points gained as the competition proceeds should be posted on the notice board. If houses are large, three teams from each house may be arranged for. In this way quite a large number of pupils from each house are able to take part in these extra games. One or two such competitions may be held in a term.

Once a year there should be a grand tournament between all the houses. To this two full days may be devoted, and it should include races and field events as well as games. In this tournament, games will have to be organized on the knock-out system, and if it is found that the programme is too long to complete in two days, preliminary rounds may be played off before the tournament proper. Such a tournament should be held either at the end of the school year or at the end of one term as suits local convenience.

It should always be remembered that it is far more important that a school should have its games programme so organized that all pupils have a chance to play regularly, and to take an active part in what is going on, than that the school should produce a champion hockey team or a champion football team. Anything which tends to lay too much stress on a few to the disadvantage or neglect of the many, is to be severely discouraged. While a school will naturally have its first elevens in which all keen pupils will aspire to get a place, it is possible to arrange matters so that their coaching does not interfere with the general games programme.

When district or other tournaments tend to cause schools to concentrate too much on their good players, they are to be avoided. One reason why house tournaments within a school are to be recommended is because they give a chance for a group competition and at the same time give a large number of pupils a chance of participating. If junior and senior competitions, or junior, intermediate and senior competitions, are held,

then from one-half to two-thirds of the pupils in the school may participate.

Whatever form of games organization is adopted, one thing there is against which we should continually strive. That is the danger of developing onlookers. In many countries the development of professional sport, followed by tens of thousands of onlookers, is one of the sad elements of our modern civilization. In India, especially in rural areas, we do not have the difficulty over grounds that is often met with in the West, and it should be the aim of every teacher not only to enable every boy and girl to play while in school, but to develop in them such a love of good sport that they will not be content in later life to be mere onlookers.

In this connexion schools and Boy Scout and Girl Guide organizations can do a great deal for the villages of India in carrying organized games to the villages. This is a form of social service which can be carried out by any school in a rural area and by some in urban areas. A programme of games, indigenous games and modified—or if suitable, unmodified—western games may be made out and mastered by a games team. Such a team can then start operations with the children of a village, gradually extending operations to games suitable for older people. Competitions between villages may be organized and so interest stimulated. One of the problems of village life is how to put leisure time to an interesting use. Organized games is one of the solutions of this problem. Where grounds are available

football may be organized, which is cheaper to run than hockey ; otherwise volleyball, Kabaddi or other minor indigenous and other games can be played regularly. Such a programme should be worked through the village primary or middle school, and then can be easily extended to others in the village who are not connected with the school or who are older. High schools in rural areas can do a great deal to help the villages round about them by organising games teams of their pupils both to play and teach games.

As has been pointed out in the chapter on discipline, games are a very great aid in inculcating the right sort of discipline. Success in this, however, depends very largely on the proper organization within the game group itself. Games will not be an aid to the development of self-discipline if the teacher in charge does not bother to make himself acquainted with the rules of the game being played ; or if, knowing them, does not bother to see that they are adhered to. Carelessness here, as well as in anything else, will ruin everything.

PHYSICAL DRILL

It is important that there should be physical drill in schools. We have pointed out that there should be daily physical drill in the boarding-house in the mornings. There should also be a short period for drill in the middle of morning school. This need not be longer than a quarter of an hour. It serves the purpose of a break and also gives a chance for corrective exercises to

be done. For this drill period the school should be divided up into groups of from fifteen to twenty pupils. Each group should have a student leader and should also be supervised by a teacher. One teacher can supervise two groups. The pupils in the groups should be more or less of the same size. It is better to make size the principle of division than age or class. For purposes of drill, it is advisable to have groups composed of those who are of the same size. If classes are used as the principle of division, this matter of size cannot be taken into account with the result that most uneven groups come together. When this is the case the drill suffers. The whole school should be sized and then divided into groups.

It is necessary that the pupil leaders and also the teachers should know what they are doing. Books can be obtained which give tables of exercises for different groups,¹ but if possible those teachers who are to be in charge of groups should have a short course with a physical training expert, and should have tables for their groups made out. They can then train their pupil leaders. If the pupil leaders can also have a short course so much the better. But the teacher must be able to train others as the first ones pass out of the school. This organization is assuming that there is no drill master in

¹ e.g. *Syllabus of Physical Training for Schools*, *Reference Book of Gymnastic Training for Boys*, *Physical Exercises for Children under 7 years of age* (all published by the Board of Education, London).

the school. If there is a drill master then he will be able to direct the physical drill. Even if there is a drill master it is still better to have all the groups drilling at the same time. If this is not done the times for drill for some groups will not be good. Some will get the time at the beginning of the morning, some at the end, and some at the end of the afternoon. The best time is slightly after the middle of the morning. Then again if the whole school does not have drill at the same time, it will be impossible to arrange the groups according to size. They will have to be arranged by classes, and as we have seen this is not the best way.

The drill master will be able to train the other teachers who are helping him to supervise the groups, and also the leaders. He can take a special course with the leaders at the beginning of each year just after they are appointed. He will also exercise general supervision during the drill period and go round from group to group seeing that exercises are being done as they should be, and that all pupils are being kept up to the mark.

During the drill period, exercises should be corrective especially with regard to posture. The period should conclude with a game lasting for two or three minutes and then with a minute or two for breathing exercises. It should be emphasized that the drill period is not on any account to be used for any drill of the military sort. It is for physical drill only, and such things as marching, turning, and so on should be reduced to an absolute minimum.

XI

OTHER ACTIVITIES

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

ONE of the most important lessons which a school has to teach is the lesson of co-operation. No child should go through school without getting some knowledge of co-operation generally, and of co-operative societies in particular. The more practical that knowledge is, the better it will be. Thus, if at all possible, there should be a co-operative society in the school, where the pupils, under careful supervision, do the work and learn by actual practice how a co-operative society is run. The officials of the co-operative department are always ready to give whatever help is needed in the matter.

There will certainly be difficulties owing to the fact that the members of the societies will be learning, but they can be overcome. It should be the duty of one member of the staff to take a particular interest in the subject, and to make this branch of extra-school work his hobby. If some member of the staff is thus vitally interested in the subject and enthusiastic over it, there will be no difficulty in overcoming the problems which sometimes arise.

The easiest form of co-operative society to run in school is usually a society for dealing in books and stationery. Pupils will be shareholders in the society,

buying as many shares as they wish to up to the limit laid down. Shareholders will take it in turn to be salesmen, and a definite time will be fixed when stationery can be bought, and a definite place fixed from where it can be sold. The salesmen should keep accounts under the careful supervision of the teacher in charge, and there should be regular meetings of the shareholders to decide on buying, and on prices, and on any other matters connected with the running of the society. Regular officers should be elected, regular minutes of meetings kept, and accounts should be regularly audited every year. If the society is registered with a Co-operative Department, the auditing will be done by the department and the society will have to conform to the rules laid down by the department. It is probably the best plan to have the society registered with the department. Dividends will be declared and paid to shareholders according to the rules adopted.

A further development of this activity is the co-operative shop. This is a regular shop where other things besides stationery and books are sold. Anything which the shareholders decide on and for which there is a demand may be stocked. If possible the shop should open on to an outside road so that sales may be made to the general public. Again times must be fixed when the shop is to be open, and the shareholders will take it in turn to serve in the shop and act as salesmen. Apart from the co-operative principles taught in such an activity, very good practice is given in practical arith-

metic, in the running of a shop and in the keeping of accounts. The accounts will be as simple as possible. Everything should be on a cash basis and no credit should be given. The whole thing will be under the careful supervision of a teacher who will check stock each day.

Another form of co-operative society which may be run in a school is a co-operative arbitration society. In the village this is used to try to curb the desire for litigation, and to enable people to settle their differences without going to court. The usual plan is for a person who becomes a member of such a society to sign an agreement on joining the society that if he refuses to let the society settle a dispute which he may have with another member on any of the subjects specified in the by-laws, or if he tries to prevent an award being carried out in any way, he will be prepared to pay a penalty of a certain amount which is fixed by the rules. When a quarrel arises, the aggrieved person applies to the committee, the defendant is called, and the committee tries to settle the matter amicably. Failing a settlement by the committee, arbitrators are appointed who go into the case. There is an appeal from them to the committee or to the registrar. The arbitrators are appointed from a panel elected annually. No lawyer can appear on behalf of any party to a dispute nor can one be appointed arbitrator or member of a committee.

This most useful piece of machinery can be used in schools, where there are often petty differences arising between pupils. It can be made part of the regular

system of self-government if some such system is being employed, or it may be an independent activity. It is not possible to fix a fine of money as the penalty for not carrying out an award, or for not keeping the rules, but some other penalty more suited to school life and to local conditions may be fixed. The rest of the machinery may be used in a simplified form, and in this way pupils get a valuable training both in co-operation and arbitration. Such a society should be run by the pupils themselves under supervision. The headmaster should keep an eye on the working of the society to see that no flagrant injustice is done. Particular care should be taken in electing the panel of arbitrators. It is here that the headmaster may possibly have to put in a word if he finds that unsuitable pupils are being elected to this position.

RED CROSS SOCIETIES

A Red Cross Society is a very valuable form of extra-school activity. Again one or more members of the staff must be put in charge of such a society, though the work of managing and running a society should be done as far as possible by the pupils themselves. School Red Cross Societies are known as Junior Red Cross Societies.

Their activities may be directed in several directions. If there is a boarding-house in connexion with the school, one of their functions will be to manage and look after the boarding-house dispensary where simple medicines and such things as bandages, iodine, sticking

plaster, and so on are dispensed. Members of the society may take turns to be on duty at certain periods in the day, and to be on call in case of necessity. Even if there is no boarding-house, a small dispensary may be run in connexion with the science department of the school or by itself as a separate activity, and the Red Cross Society can be responsible for the managing of it. Two members should be on duty each day, turns being taken by all members of the society. They will be on call and will be in attendance at such times as are fixed.

Membership should, of course, be voluntary and there should be a small subscription. This, however, should be really small. Service contributions should also entitle to membership so that no one may be debarred from membership. Certificates may be issued to individual members, and membership rolls may be posted in some convenient place. The teacher in charge will have supervision of the funds, which ought always to be deposited in a bank account opened for the society.

The work of a Red Cross Society is twofold. In the first place it has to instruct its members in the rules of health, in first aid and in taking simple measures in connexion with the prevention of diseases such as malaria, plague, small-pox and cholera. In the second place it has to teach its members to act as missionaries of health and to spread their knowledge among those who do not have it.

In carrying out the first task, courses in first aid should be arranged which can be taken by members. Lectures

on disease and its causes and prevention should also be arranged. A library should gradually be built up containing books dealing with health, the rules of health, diseases and their causes and prevention. As far as possible such a library should contain books written in the mother-tongue. The local doctor should be asked to co-operate in the instruction of members, and any other outside help which may be useful may be obtained. The members of the society may assist with the annual medical inspection, taking weights and heights and doing anything else that they can to assist the doctor. They can also assist teachers when the latter are getting similar information for reports.

In carrying out the second task, the first sphere for the activities of the society is the school itself. Members may organize exhibitions and discussions which will help them to spread among their school-fellows the knowledge they have gained in the society. Plays may be staged for the same purpose. As experience is gained, the work may be extended to a wider sphere. The society may take part in whatever rural reconstruction work is being done in the neighbourhood, and can be of great assistance here. Plays may be staged on health subjects, and lantern lectures arranged. The members may assist with the organization of the lectures and with the working of the lantern while getting a doctor or some other experienced person to give the lecture. They may give demonstrations of first aid and of preventative measures that may be taken in the village. They can help the

villagers to organize health clubs. Definite programmes of such work should be planned beforehand, and then systematically carried out.

The members of the Red Cross Society may also make a point of visiting their school-fellows who are away from school sick, and of helping them in any way possible. They may also assist in organizing and carrying through such functions as 'baby weeks'. Any matters connected with the health of the school and of the surrounding locality are legitimate activities of a Red Cross Society.

SCOUTS AND GUIDES

It is not necessary here to go into the organization of Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Wolf Cubs or Blue Birds. The detailed information of the organization of these activities may be obtained from any of the official publications of these movements. All are valuable organizations in schools, especially with a view to training for citizenship, and to providing outlets for instinctive activity which might otherwise be suppressed or make itself felt in undesirable ways.

There are however some points which a fairly long experience of the Scout Movement would indicate as needing emphasis.

In the first place it should be emphasized that the work of these organizations will be ruined if there is too much drill in connexion with them. A prominent scoutmaster in England once said that he had given his

troop only five minutes drill in the year and he felt that that was five minutes too much. It is a sign of a poor scoutmaster when a troop is found to be continually doing a lot of drill, or even a small amount of drill. Drill is not necessary. One of the great advantages of Scouts and Guides, Wolf Cubs and Blue Birds is that they are organizations where true methods of discipline can easily be employed, and the nature of their activities is such that drill methods are quite unnecessary and irrelevant. Drill is the resort of the leader with no initiative and no imagination. These organizations are play organizations, and the work done in them is done in the spirit of play. Anything which tends to take them away from this psychologically sound foundation is to be discouraged.

Connected with this is the important point that these organizations should not be conducted as school classes. Nothing will kill interest in scouting sooner than the creation in the pupils of a feeling that this is just one more class where a lot of things have to be learnt. There are a lot of things to be learnt in scouting and guiding, but if they come as part of a big game, then interest will be greater and the work done will be of a much better quality. This can be done only if the leader realizes, as has been pointed out, that the organizations are play organizations. He will never be successful if he is content to set his troop down in the school compound and try to make them learn certain knots, bandages, signals and so on. He must get them out,

turn the whole thing into a big game in which are included many smaller games, and then he will find interest taken in grinding up what otherwise would be uninteresting drill. This is most important, as it is the failure to understand this that is at the bottom of the difficulty that many have found in maintaining interest. The organizations have been planned on the psychological basis of the play method, so that it is not difficult to carry out this method in the work. Only as this is done will these organizations be really successful.

A third point to be noticed is that these organizations are not, as they are so often considered to be, means of promotion for the teacher in charge. It is regrettable, but none the less true, that many teachers have taken up scouting, and have been trained as scoutmasters, chiefly with the idea that it adds to their qualifications to be trained scoutmasters, and that by running a troop they will increase their chances of quick promotion. Needless to say there is no hope of the real success of scouting under scoutmasters who go into the work for such reasons, unless, having taken it up, the work grips them and causes a change of heart. School authorities cannot be too careful in the choice of scoutmasters. It is not a job for which every Tom, Dick and Harry is suited, and a great deal of damage has been done to the movement through a too indiscriminate training of all and sundry to be scoutmasters. It is a work for which there should be a real call, and for which definite characteristics are required : those of the man who is still a boy at

heart and of the woman who is still a girl at heart, and who have a passion for the right development of youth. Allied to this is the danger of making the work of these organizations a matter of show. The person who takes up scouting or guiding as a means to promotion will naturally be keen to show what he or she is doing. Otherwise, if no one knows, what is the use of it? It is again regrettable, but none the less true, that in some schools the scout troop functions for a few weeks before the inspector's visit and dies again the day after he is gone, to be resuscitated again the following year just before the annual visit or perhaps at the time of some *mela* where some kudos is to be obtained. Needless to say such methods ruin scouting, and do the boys concerned more harm than good. Scouting is not a matter for show. Reports of good works of various troops that are often published in educational or scout papers or sections of papers are against the whole spirit of the movement and should be discouraged. If it is felt that the knowledge of such exploits will be of help and encouragement to others, then the names of troops and scoutmasters concerned should not be published. The effect on others will be equally good and some of the bad effect will be avoided.

In the same way too great emphasis on rallies is to be avoided. A very occasional rally on a district scale may be a good thing to bring home to scouts that they belong to a bigger organization than their own troop, and to give them encouragement and inspiration. But in all

such gatherings it is difficult to avoid the element of show which is so bad, and which is inclined to lift its ugly head whenever it gets the slightest chance. Too much emphasis on rallies will ruin scouting. The parents object to the expense involved, and become antagonistic. The scouts get the idea that scouting means getting ready for a rally and the competitions involved. Scouting and guiding can get along most successfully with very few rallies. Troops in one place can always, as considered necessary, be brought together for friendly competition and co-operative work.

In the fourth place there is the matter of uniform. Some scoutmasters and Commissioners are inclined to insist on uniforms. The boy cannot be a scout unless he has a uniform. The girl cannot be a guide unless she has a uniform.

This policy may be all right in communities which are composed of people who are fairly well-off, but is, I think, a thoroughly mistaken one in rural districts where parents are poor. It may be admitted that the uniform does not cost much, but anyone who has worked in rural areas knows that even the small cost of a uniform can be a very real barrier if it is insisted on. There is no reason why anyone should be debarred from being a scout or a guide because of poverty. Insistence on uniform is therefore a mistake, at any rate at first. Pupils will make every effort they can to get uniforms, and if they cannot it means that there is some real reason for it. Often the uniform can be obtained gradually.

As a boy's clothes wear out and he has to get new ones, if arrangements can be made to supply him with scout clothes as cheaply as he gets his ordinary clothes, then gradually his uniform will be built up. If the pupil can be supplied with work to do by which he can earn money to buy the uniform, so much the better. The uniform attracts, and where there is keenness a strong effort will be made to get one. But no one should be turned away from a troop because of lack of a uniform. It does not matter if the look of the troop is not so good. The troop is not there for its appearance. It is there for the good that it can do the boy and the help that it can give the boy. It can do its work quite well even though some of its members have not got uniforms.

The objection will be raised that then the troop will present a very ragged and variegated appearance. This is true, but I would rather have variegation than exclusion. The troop may not make such a good show on parade, but the clothes the members are wearing need not impair the efficiency of their work. While a uniform is to be desired, it is, after all, a detail compared with the spirit, and we shall be tending to instil the wrong spirit if we raise unnecessary financial barriers.

If possible, when there are scouts or guides in a school there should also be Wolf Cubs or Blue Birds. Children of nine to twelve and thirteen need the benefits of such organizations just as much as their elder brothers and sisters need the help of their organizations. The effi-

ciency of a scout troop is considerably increased if it is being fed from a Wolf Cub pack.

If at all possible there should be a scout room in a school where there is a scout troop. This, of course, is not always available, but it should be the aim of a troop to get a club room of their own. If the school authorities cannot supply one, the members of the troop may be able to earn or collect enough money, if not to build a whole room, at least to defray part of the cost. Such a room is needed as a meeting place, a place for keeping equipment, for displaying charts, and as a general headquarters. Cubs and scouts can use the same room.

LITERARY SOCIETIES

These may be separate societies, one for each department in the school, lower middle, upper middle and high : or they may be run, as has been suggested, in connexion with the houses if the school is divided into houses (see page 119). Where in house meetings or in separate societies pupils should be encouraged to manage the meeting themselves. Student chairmen and secretaries and a student programme committee should be elected. The duty of the latter will be to arrange for the programme. Items such as recitations, speeches, dialogues, demonstrations, short playlets, both in English and in the mother-tongue, may form part of the programme. Items should be corrected by the house tutors or by the teacher in charge before being given. These

meetings provide a very useful means for giving pupils opportunities for expressional work and also for developing literary and dramatic talent. Full opportunity should be given after such items as speeches or essays for discussion by members of the society.

Normally it is better for such literary societies to be conducted in the mother-tongue, and for the items to be in the mother-tongue. At the same time there should also be opportunity for expressional work in English. Sometimes items in the ordinary meetings may be given in English. Occasionally a whole meeting may be given over to English work when all the items will be in English. It is a good plan for the high classes to have a regular meeting, in addition to the ordinary literary meetings, say once a month, when the whole programme may be in English and everything may be done in English. Items must be corrected beforehand by the teacher in charge. It is very unwise for a pupil to learn off a speech which is full of mistakes.

Such meetings may be made interesting if they take the form of mock trials, of debates, of mock parliaments, or of anything of a similar nature which will add a dramatic appeal to what is being done. Such things can with advantage be done in the ordinary literary meeting in the mother-tongue. A very much improved form of the debate is what is called a panel discussion. A subject is chosen for discussion as in a debate. Instead of speakers being divided into sides as in a debate, however, they sit in a semicircle facing the audience, and the

procedure is that of a discussion circle. There is a chairman who is in charge of the group, but members of the group can speak as often as they like. Usually there is a time limit. Questions can be asked at any stage of the proceedings. The aim is not, as in a debate, to stand up for one side at all costs, but to try to arrive at a decision or conclusion which will be the result of the combined efforts of the whole group and will, as far as possible, represent the group mind on the subject. Those taking part will be expected to have open minds on the subject, and if they are convinced that they have been wrong in their previous views, are expected to change their minds. This of course is impossible in a debate. The whole of the discussion is in public, and when the group has finished, the discussion may be thrown open to the whole meeting. The chairman exercises throughout the usual functions of a chairman in a discussion. This form of discussion is extremely interesting and does far more permanent good than a debate does.

LECTURES

A useful activity, especially in rural areas where general knowledge is poor, is for talks or lectures to be given regularly once or twice a week, or even, if time allows, every day, on subjects of general interest. In some schools this has been made a daily feature, the first half hour of the day being devoted to a talk on some subject of literary, scientific, historical, geographical, or

general interest, which is outside the ordinary run of work. But if the time-table does not allow this to be done every day, it can be done at least once a week. In this way interest may be created in the larger world and its doings, knowledge imparted and life made a more interesting and fuller thing. It will usually be found better to divide a school into sections, and have two talks going on at the same time ; one for the high department and one for the middle department. People from the town or district may be asked to come and give talks on subjects connected with their work. Such people as the local doctor, the co-operative inspector, the president of the town committee or municipality, the veterinary surgeon, anyone who has a special interest in some subject which will be useful and interesting to pupils may be asked to speak. Visitors to the locality should be made use of whenever possible.

The following is the programme of a term's talks to a high department. The talks were given once a week.

New Zealand, I.

New Zealand, II.

How Should We Treat our Sisters ?

The Ceylon Schoolboy.

Some Diseases and How to Deal with them.

How India is Governed.

The Joint Parliamentary Committee Report.

Co-operation.

Wireless Telegraphy.

JUNIOR LEAGUE OF NATIONS SOCIETIES

It is very important that definite efforts be made in schools to develop the international mind in pupils and to teach them something of international affairs. It is very necessary for the school to play its part in developing a public opinion which will enable the League of Nations to function. In fact, the part that the school can play in this work is essential for the very existence of the League as a force in the world. One excellent way in which the school can do its work in this connexion is by means of League of Nations Societies.

The societies are organized with officers in the same way as other societies, but have as their object the giving of information about the League of Nations and its work, the history of the League, its accomplishments, and the international organizations for which the League is responsible. The aim should be to develop an international mind in the members of the society, and to inculcate a true patriotism which will see one country as a member of the great family of nations.

A Junior League of Nations Society may have meetings as often as is wished, but once a fortnight is probably enough, and in many cases once a month will be all that is possible. The society should subscribe for any League of Nations magazine which is available,¹

¹ *Headway* is the monthly organ of the League of Nations Union, obtainable from 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S. W. 1 (annual subscription, 2s. 6d.).

and also for the pamphlets and booklets which are issued from time to time by the League of Nations Union. The society should affiliate with the local League of Nations organization in India. At meetings of the society papers may be read on different subjects connected with current international affairs, and the part being played by the League. A general review of world events may form a regular feature of each meeting. There should be discussions, either group discussions or panel discussions, or occasionally debates, on subjects of interest in connexion with the League of Nations. Model Assemblies of the League, with boys representing the member-countries and giving their points of view on any given subject of international importance often arouse more interest than lectures or debates. Anything may be done which will help children to learn to take an intelligent interest in the activities of the League and in international affairs.

Outside activities of such a society may consist in members giving to the whole school, say once a week, a resume of world news with special reference to the League of Nations. Articles dealing with the League and its work may be written for class and school magazines. Special lectures may be given to classes by members of the class in question who are members of the League of Nations Society on any subject of special interest which may arise. Panel discussions may be held in classes. That is, the members of the society may

villain for example, should not always be played by the same pupil. The part is liable to have a bad effect on his character if he is constantly given it, and he will be apt to carry over into real life the characteristics assumed for stage purposes. Parts should be passed round so that no one pupil may specialize in one particular kind of part. It should always be remembered that the purpose of dramatics in school is educational. The value is in the preparation rather than in the production of a finished display, though this, of course, has its place. But the attention of the teacher should be mainly on the educational values found in the working out of the project, rather than on the audience to which the finished product will be shown. An audience there must be, and they will naturally enter into the calculations and thoughts of those preparing. But pupils are not professionals nor is the school theatre a professional theatre. The joy is in the preparation, and the value is in the working out of the project. The performance of the play in public is the climax but should not have more than its due place in the minds of those concerned.

One place where the audience must be taken into consideration is as a check to ensure that the pupils put their best into what they are doing. It is bad training to allow pupils to show slovenly work, and to come on the stage badly prepared. The stage properties may be crude and the acting amateurish, but it should be the best that those particular pupils can do under the

circumstances. The teacher in charge must always bear this in mind, and must never allow a play to be performed in public till it is properly prepared.

Stage properties sometimes worry teachers, but it is wonderful what the imagination of children can do with a box or a chair or a table. The preparation of stage properties, as a matter of fact, may constitute one of the educational values of dramatics. Pupils should be encouraged to prepare as much as they can themselves. These will gradually be accumulated, and can be used again when possible. If accommodation allows, it is an advantage for one room to be set aside as the school theatre. It need not be kept solely for the purpose of dramatics, but in it can be kept stage properties, the stage curtains and other accessories. Arrangements can be made so that the curtains will be ready for use at any time. It is sometimes possible to combine the reading-room and the theatre.

In connexion with dramatics, pupils should always be encouraged to write their own plays. This is true of plays both in English and in the mother-tongue. They must be corrected of course by the teacher in charge before being given over for preparation for performance. One of the chief creative values of dramatics lies in the writing of their own plays by children. Occasionally they should be given prepared plays to perform, which may serve as samples and models, but usually they should be encouraged to write their own. The staff may occasionally put on a play to serve as a model.

GARDENING

This is one of the most useful hobbies and in every school there should be opportunities for pupils to garden. The best way to organize this activity is to have a gardening club. If agriculture is taught in the school, the agriculture teacher will be the best person to be in charge of the gardening club. If there is no agriculture teacher in the school, someone from the staff who knows something about gardening, and who is keen on it, should be put in charge. It is no use giving the work to one who knows nothing about it, and is not keen to learn. It may be possible sometimes to get some enthusiastic amateur from outside who will be willing to come once or twice a week and give instruction and help to the members of the club.

It is no use having a gardening club unless the subject is going to be taken up seriously. That is, it is no use organizing it unless there is someone who really knows what is to be done, when it is to be done, and how it is to be done. Otherwise interest will soon go. But if someone can be put in charge who does know something about the subject of gardening, then a gardening club can be a very successful activity.

The beautification of the school compound may be given over to this club and the planting and care of flowers, shrubs, trees, and so on will be one of its activities. They can draw up a general plan for the laying out of the compound with flower beds and grass plots

and trees, and can generally take charge of the whole of this department of work. If there is sufficient land each member or, perhaps better, each pair of members may be given a plot for growing vegetables. Some may also wish to experiment with fruit trees.

HOBBIES

Owing to the difficulty that so many children in India have in working at hobbies in their homes, it falls to the school to make as good arrangements as possible for them. Hobbies are extra-school activities, but have a very real educational value. But if they are to have the value they should have, careful organization is necessary.

In the first place the staff of a school should decide what hobbies they are going to encourage. This boils down to deciding what hobbies individual members of the staff are willing to take up and work at with pupils. It is very rarely possible for a hobby to be successful unless a teacher is working at it along with the group of pupils who have taken it up. This is an important consideration. Success in hobbies depends on the personal interest of teachers. This may be qualified by adding to 'teachers', senior pupils. If, as sometimes happens, individual pupils have a knowledge of how to do certain types of craftwork, this work may be entrusted to them. Such pupils need to be keen and to have a sense of responsibility. But whether from the staff or from senior pupils, each group working on a

hobby should have a leader to direct operations. Sometimes it will be found that there is a group of pupils who wish to take up a hobby for which there is no teacher. If such a group is keen the most senior pupil may be put in charge.

Time is always a difficulty. One way of meeting this difficulty is for there to be a regular time, say on Saturday, after school is over, or at least after regular class work is over, when all can work at their hobbies for an hour or an hour and a half. I think that if any real work is going to be done it is essential to have such a set period for hobbies. This does not preclude work being done at home if possible by any who wish to, but it does ensure regular work being done by all concerned. For most it will not be possible to do much at home. If the school is supplying tools and apparatus, they will naturally have to remain at school.

Finance is another difficulty. In some places schools are allowed to spend a certain amount of sports' or union funds on hobbies and this is a great help. Sometimes it is possible to get a certain amount of financial return from the sale of articles made, as in the case of weaving or carpentry. Sometimes well-wishers of the school who are interested in this kind of work will give donations. Exhibitions of work may be held at which things can be sold or for which a small entrance fee can be charged.

As far as possible pupils should be allowed to choose their own hobbies although if groups get too large some may be persuaded to take up another. It is usually

wise for pupils to stick to one hobby for a couple of years. This depends a good deal on the type of work and on the ability of the pupil. It is no use trying to make pupils keep on with something of which they obviously cannot make a success. On the other hand, pupils need to work at some hobbies for a considerable time in order to learn to do the work well. Length of time therefore will be determined by circumstances.

XII

BUILDINGS AND FURNITURE

SITE

IT IS BETTER, if at all possible, to secure a site for a school outside a town. This, of course, is not possible in big cities, but in large numbers of towns and villages in India it is possible to have the school, if not at a short distance from the town, at least on the outside of the town area. In such a position there is more fresh air, there is a better chance of getting adequate playing grounds near the school, there is a better chance of getting a decent school compound, there will be a better chance of preventing epidemics spreading in the school, land will be cheaper and accommodation better. There will not be the temptation to go in for two-storied buildings. It will be possible to make much better boarding-house arrangements. The school should not be so far away from the town that it is inaccessible to day pupils, but it does children no harm to have to walk a short distance to school every day. Other considerations have to be taken into account in determining the site for a girls' school, though, if possible, it too should be outside the town.

The site should be near a road, yet back from the road as far as can be arranged to escape as much dust as possible. When choosing the site, authorities

should take into consideration the direction in which the town is growing and extending. They do not want to find themselves in the middle of the town in ten years' time. The site should be a little raised if possible, and at any rate should be dry. There should be no ponds or low-lying water-logged ground near at hand. The site should be as free from white ants as possible, and also from saltpetre. There should be a good water-supply handy. If there are no trees on the site a tree-planting programme should be drawn up and started on at once. Every school compound should have plenty of trees in it. When planting trees, attention should be paid to the possibility of putting in fruit trees, which besides giving shade will later be of otherwise useful.

BUILDING

Plans of buildings are given at the end of this chapter. The E plan, or a modification of it, is probably the best form of building, and is to be recommended. The rooms are open to the light, the hall is in a central position but does not block light or air, the wings can easily be added to, the general arrangement is good. Sometimes a double E or H form of building is used. This too is a good type of building.

The building, in most parts of India, should face the south. It is not always advisable to have verandahs on both sides of the rooms. Sometimes the cross lighting is not good. If the school is built in the E shape or is in a quadrangle, facing south, the verandahs may be

on the inner sides, and on the outer sides there may be movable sunshades, with ropes to regulate them, over windows and ventilators.

It is advisable to have the building of one storey only if at all possible. Land is not usually so dear as to make a one-storey building much more expensive than a two-storied one, and in every way the one-storey building is preferable. It is also not a good plan to have the second storey used as a hostel. Sometimes, again because of the necessity for economy, this is done, but whenever possible a separate building for the boarding-house should be erected at a distance from the school, with the school between it and the road.

There should be only one door in a room and it should be towards the front of the room at one side. It should not be in the wall facing the class. Rooms should be large enough to accommodate 40-45 pupils according to the regulations laid down by departments. They should be about 22 x 23 feet. There should be room for gangways between desks. Single desks will require a larger room for the same number of pupils than dual desks. Rooms should be sixteen or seventeen feet in height with plenty of ventilators, near the top of the walls. These should be provided with shades. Rooms should not open into one another. That is, pupils should not have to go through one room to get to another.

LIGHTING

The main light should come from the left side in order that there may be no shadow thrown on the

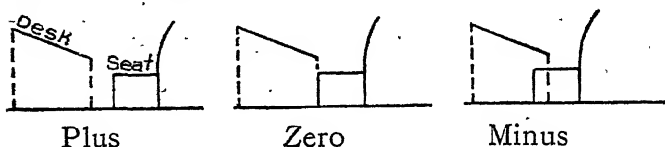
work that is being done. Light from behind throws a shadow on the whole work, light from in front is dazzling, light from the right side is not so bad, but some shadow is cast. The bottom of windows should be three and a half or four feet from the floor. The window area should be from one-sixth to one-quarter of the floor area. The test for the lighting in a room is to see if a child can read ordinary type at a foot from the eye in every part of the room. Special attention should be paid to lighting arrangements in science rooms and in drawing rooms, where window space may be increased.

DESKS

Single desks are better than dual desks and dual desks are better than longer ones. Sometimes a compromise is made by having long desks with single seats separated from one another. The single desk is however much the best. The single desk makes work easier for the child, prevents overcrowding, is better from a hygienic point of view, and is generally more satisfactory. Single desks are more expensive and therefore seldom found. Tables are better than desks for some subjects. For any subject in which there is hand-work or experimental work to be done, tables are to be preferred. In subjects where numbers of books have to be consulted, where work is being carried on by the Dalton Plan, and often in senior classes, the table gives more room for working and makes work easier than

the desk. For most subjects desks are preferable in junior classes.

Usually desks are fixed and the seats are attached. This is not desirable. Either a desk should be used whose top can be moved backwards and forwards and raised up and down, or seats should be quite separate from the desk. The distance of the seat from the desk for reading work and writing work is different.



The plus position is best for reading and standing, the minus position for writing. Seats should be of such a height that children's feet do not dangle but reach the floor. Seats should have backs. Preferably these backs should be adjustable to fit the back of the pupil using the seat.

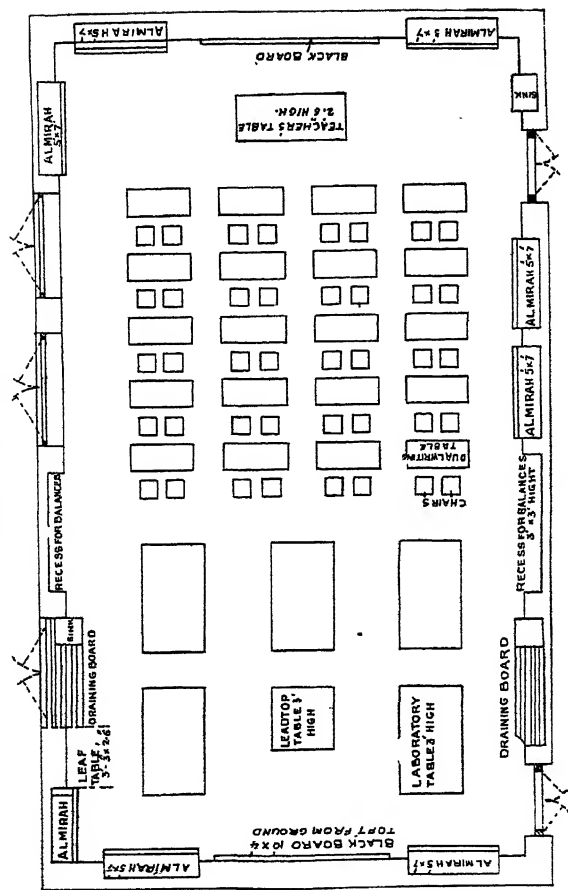
The teacher's desk should be on a raised platform so that he may be able to see all over the room, and see the surface of every desk.

BLACKBOARDS

Two types of blackboard are in use, the wall blackboard, and the easel blackboard. For most purposes the easel blackboard is the better. Both sides can be used, and it can be raised as the teacher wishes to use the lower part, which can thus be seen from every part

IV. HIGH SCHOOL SCIENCE ROOM TO ACCOMMODATE 40

SCALE 5' = 1"
ROOM = 45' X 25'



40 FOR DEMONSTRATION
20 FOR PRACTICAL WORK

R. H. Whitehouse

of the room (the lower part of a wall blackboard is difficult to write on and cannot be seen easily from the back of the room). It can be moved to any part of the room and its angle changed to suit the light. Frequently it is difficult to read writing on a wall blackboard from some parts of the room. If classes are taken outside, the easel blackboard can be moved. If there are only wall blackboards it is impossible to take classes outside. Fixed wall blackboards are useful for drawing-rooms and for infant classes. Blackboards should be painted whenever they become too shiny.

CUPBOARDS

Every room should have one or two cupboards in which dusters, chalk, registers, books of reference, and other things may be kept. The cheapest cupboards are those which are built into the wall when the building is being put up. Care has to be taken to prevent white ants from demolishing the contents. If possible there should also be open shelves in the room for dictionaries, encyclopaedias, picture books, atlases and so on. A science room will have a large number of cupboards.

There should be a wooden rail running round the room about eight feet from the floor with hooks or nails in it. From this maps, charts, pictures or other apparatus may be hung. Every room should have pictures in it. They should be connected with the subject for which the room is used and so help to give the right atmosphere to the room.

XIII

THE MANAGING COMMITTEE AND THE MANAGER

THE CONSTITUTION of the managing committee or board of a school is an important matter. Even in the case of Government or Municipal or District Board Schools, if regulations allow, it is a good plan to have a school board or committee, representative of influential people from the neighbourhood catered for by the school, for advisory purposes. Such a committee can be a great help to the headmaster in many ways. In connexion with private non-Government schools there should always be a managing committee.

In non-Government schools such a board is not only possible and advantageous, but is in some cases required by code rules. Its constitution is a matter that is left open. Normally it will be representative of parents and of those who contribute to the finances of the school. There should be definite rules drawn up defining membership of the school association by which the managing committee is elected. (This association may be the Parent-Teacher Association if one is in existence.) Otherwise it may be an association with a wider basis. Old pupils of the school may be eligible for membership, and parents and interested people who are prepared

to contribute a certain minimum amount to the finances of the school. A small membership fee may be levied.

This association will then elect the managing committee annually or at such periods as may be determined. It is probably better to have definite numbers of representatives of different divisions of the association. That is, a definite number of the managing committee will be old pupils, a definite number parents, with some places left for open choice. The headmaster and a representative of the staff should have places on the committee. Thus in a committee of twelve, three places might be reserved for old pupils, three for parents and four left for open election.

This managing committee will then elect its own chairman (who will be the manager of the school) and a secretary and a treasurer. The managing committee will be responsible for the financial side of the school. Such school funds as sports' funds, library funds, science funds, and so on should be put in the charge of the headmaster, and he should be given full control of them. He should also be given a monthly grant of petty cash for small petty expenditure of which an account will be rendered monthly. A definite limit should be laid down as to the amount that the headmaster can spend on any one item. This cannot be exceeded without the permission of the manager. The headmaster should be allowed to open Post Office Savings Bank accounts for each of those funds which he has to administer. The general school Post Office Savings Bank account

should be in the name of the manager, and money from fees, grants, donations and subscriptions should be regularly deposited in it. The committee will decide whether salary payments are to be made at the end of the month by the headmaster or by the manager. That is, whether a lump sum will be handed to the headmaster who will disburse it or whether the manager will himself make the payments to the staff. The latter procedure is to be recommended, but local circumstances will be a deciding factor. The manager's accounts must be carefully kept, and are subject to an annual audit by departmental auditors. An account of amounts paid into the school funds over and above fees and grants received has to be kept.

The managing committee is responsible for the maintenance of a provident fund for teachers in the school, and for seeing that the monthly payments into the individual accounts are made before the 4th of each month, in order that interest may not be lost. Such provident fund accounts have to be kept by some person, teacher or school clerk, to whom the work is given by the manager. It is always advisable for this provident fund to be managed according to the standard provident fund rules for the province in which the school is situated. Separate accounts are to be kept for each teacher. The usual arrangement is for one anna per rupee of salary to be contributed by the teacher and one anna per rupee of salary to be contributed by the managing committee.

All teachers, including the headmaster, are employed by the managing committee, and definite rules of service should be laid down, definite grades according to which salaries are paid and increments given should be drawn up, and a definite agreement of terms and conditions of service should be drawn up and legally executed. Unless this is done there is sure to be trouble sooner or later. For both teachers and committee it is better to have conditions and terms of service as carefully laid down as possible. At the end of the chapter is given a form of agreement recommended by the Punjab Education Department.

There should be the closest co-operation between headmaster and staff on the one hand and manager and managing committee on the other hand. The managing committee must have confidence in their headmaster and in their staff. They choose their men in the first place, and then having chosen them should place full confidence in them and especially in their headmaster. Differences of opinion there may be and will be, but if there is mutual respect and confidence between headmaster and manager and managing committee, these differences can usually be amicably and reasonably settled. Definite rules concerning the extent of the responsibility of the headmaster may be laid down, and having been laid down should be scrupulously observed by both managing committee and headmaster. Neither should attempt to encroach on the domain of the other. The fact that the headmaster and a representative of the

staff are members of the managing committee will ensure that their views are understood and taken into account in any decisions arrived at by the managing committee.

For the welfare of the school it is important that all the members of the managing committee, and not the manager alone, should take a keen interest in the school, and in its working. They should be people with an interest in education, and if this is the case, can be of great assistance to a progressive headmaster and staff. They should know what is going on in the school, and if visits are made in the right spirit they will always be welcomed.

If possible, it is a good thing for the manager to do some teaching in the school. This of course can be done only when the manager is qualified to teach and has the necessary leisure. Often, however, it can be managed. If the manager does take some classes he can keep in much closer touch with the school than is otherwise possible. As a teacher he is under the headmaster while he is working in the school. Obviously such an arrangement can be successfully carried out only if there is the confidence we mentioned between the manager and the headmaster. Unless there is a basis of mutual friendship and respect, the coming in of the manager as a teacher would be a source of friction. But there is no reason why the necessary conditions should not be fulfilled, and if they are, the arrangement is of great assistance both to manager and to headmaster, and is

for the benefit of the school. The manager can understand better the ideals of the headmaster and staff and how they are attempting to carry out those ideals. He has a better appreciation of the needs of the school in the way of equipment and staffing. He can estimate better the result of methods in use. He can appreciate better the members of the staff and the work that they are doing. It should be emphasized, however, that it is necessary for the manager to be a trained teacher. In these days no one has any right to teach in a school if he is not professionally trained.

In other ways the manager and the members of the managing committee may show their interest in the school and may assist in its activities. Coaching teams, refereeing matches, playing with the pupils, taking a share in a programme of talks as described in Chapter XI, helping with the production of plays, acting as Scout-masters or helping Scout Troops with their preparation for different badges, helping Red Cross Societies and their activities, helping with training of pupils in music, in many such ways according to their interests and qualifications, manager and members of the managing committee can show their interest in the school and can help it.

There should be occasional meetings, which may be of a social as well as a business nature, of the managing committee and the staff. Members of the managing committee who may be especially interested in the subject under discussion may also be invited to the

monthly staff meeting. Such invitations should be from the staff and not from the headmaster only.

It is the duty of the managing committee to keep a careful watch not only over the financial welfare of the school but also over other aspects of school life. Holding the purse strings as they do, it is their duty to see that accommodation is sufficient, that equipment is sufficient, that sanitary arrangements are adequate, that hostel arrangements are up to the mark, that library books for the teachers' library are being bought, and the library kept up to date, that the school generally is functioning as it should do. The manager is the natural person to see to such things in close consultation with the headmaster. It is for this reason that the closer the connexion of the manager with the school, the better it is for the school. If the manager is a teacher in the school, even for a few periods in the week, he will understand far better the necessities of the school, and which things come first in importance, when all cannot be provided. It is of course necessary, as has been pointed out, that he works in the closest co-operation with the headmaster.

The managing committee should establish a Thrift and Credit Co-operative Society for the benefit of the staff. Such a society is of great benefit to the headmaster and teachers and does not involve the managing committee in any extra financial responsibility. In fact it relieves them of continual applications for loans and advances on pay. The rules of such societies will be

supplied by Co-operative Departments. The main principles are that every member takes up a number of shares, the maximum number of which to be taken by any individual is stated. Each member agrees to make a compulsory deposit every month of a certain amount. The society fixes a minimum amount for this compulsory deposit. There need be no maximum unless desired by the society. This compulsory deposit can be drawn for certain specified reasons which are laid down in the by-laws. While it remains with the society, interest on it is credited to the account of the person concerned. This is the thrift side of the society. Then on the other hand, members may receive loans from the society up to an amount equal to three months' salary or up to whatever limit is fixed by the society. On these loans they pay interest as fixed by the society, and the loans are paid back by regular monthly instalments cut off each month's pay and extending over a period fixed by the society. At the end of the year dividends are paid on shares. Part of the profits may be paid into a common fund which may be used for any philanthropic cause connected with the school, such as scholarships or aid with fees for poor boys. The society has its regular officers, a president, secretary and treasurer and a managing committee, all of whom are elected annually. The accounts are audited by the Co-operative Department.

A DRAFT FORM OF AGREEMENT

Agreement made the day of one thousand
nine hundred and between (school authority) of the
one part and (teacher) of the other part.

Whereas the said (school authority) have agreed to engage the
said (teacher) to serve the (name) school at (place) in the capacity
of a teacher and at the salary hereinafter mentioned.

Now these presents witness and the parties hereto do hereby
mutually covenant, contract and agree in manner following,
that is to say :—

(1) That the said (school authority) shall employ the said
(teacher) and the said (teacher) shall serve the said (school
authority) as a teacher in the (name) school at (place) from the
date of his taking charge of such appointment until such
employment shall be determined as hereinafter provided.

That except it be in a purely temporary vacancy the said
(teacher) shall be on probation for a period of twelve months
from the date of his first taking charge of his appointment,
during which period it shall be open to the said (school authority)
to dispense with his services without giving notice or without
assigning any reasons.

(2) That the said (teacher) will employ himself honestly,
efficiently and diligently under the orders and instructions of the
headmaster under whom he shall from time to time be placed
as a teacher in the said (name) school in which capacity he will
discharge all such duties appertaining to that office and do all
things that may be required of him or which are necessary to be
done in his capacity as aforesaid, and will make himself in other
respects generally useful as may be required of him.

(3) That he will not on any pretence absent himself from
his duties without first having obtained the permission of his
superior officer authorized in this behalf or in case of sickness
or inevitable accident without forwarding a medical certificate

XIV

SCHOOL INSPECTION

THE INSPECTORATE is one of the vital points in an educational system. This is especially true in India where Education Departments keep a very strict hand on departmental schools and, through the grant-in-aid and recognition system, on private schools also. The inspectorate can make or mar not only the educational life of the district or division as a whole, but also the educational life of the individual schools under the control of the department. The inspector holds a key position.

In the first place he is in an extremely autocratic position, where, if his will is not exactly law, it is so near to it that for all practical intents and purposes the teacher and the headmaster regard it as such. The inspector has therefore by virtue of his position an extremely powerful influence over headmasters and over individual teachers. Such a position is not normally good for human beings, and those who are selected for inspectoral work have to be on their guard against the insidious danger intrinsic to the position itself. That this is a real danger is seen by the reaction of many inspectors to headmasters or other teachers who venture to show independence of judgement and refuse, on occasion, to be browbeaten.

As a rule, of course, headmasters and teachers do not show such independence. They prefer to take in silence what the powers that be, as represented by the inspector, dictate. Teachers do not wish to put employment and future prospects in jeopardy, and schools do not wish to risk financial loss. The result is an unwholesome enlargement of self-importance in inspectors, and an equally unwholesome development of 'slave mentality' on the part of the teacher, who fumes in private. This does not by any means always happen. But it too frequently does. The remedy and the prevention are in the hands of those who hold this key position. The relationship between inspecting officers and the teachers under their supervision should be similar to those between the headmaster and the staff of an individual school, and all that has been said on that subject applies equally to inspectors and their relations with teachers and with headmasters.

Secondly the inspector is the key man as far as educational progress is concerned. Individual schools may make experiment and progress, but the general progress of a whole district or division depends on the inspecting officers. It is they who are able to keep a finger on the pulse of the educational work of the division and to know where there are weaknesses and where there is strength. The inspector is therefore able to bring the force of his influence to bear on such schools as are lagging behind, on such teachers as are deep in ruts, and on such weaknesses as are found generally. On the

other hand he is in a position where he is able to see whether the work done by a school deserves encouragement, and to give it, to determine the value of individual experiments carried on and to guide them, to emphasize elements of permanent value in the organization and work of schools.

In the third place the inspector is a key man because he can be a co-ordinating agency. Different individual schools frequently work at the same problems without one knowing what the other is doing. The work of the inspector, who sees what all schools are doing and with what success, is to pass on information about successful methods which he has seen in one school to others, to pass on information of experiments which are promising well ; to suggest how such experiments may be tried in a form modified to suit local requirements in other places ; to carry news of successful methods of instruction or organization from place to place. In a word, to be a missionary of educational progress.

In the fourth place the inspector is a key man because he can encourage experimentation. Only thus can progress come and even in the most departmentalized system there is considerable room for experiment. A good inspector will have certain forward-looking schools where he knows that there is keenness on experimental work. He will have in the schools under his supervision certain progressive teachers and headmasters whom he knows to be keen on trying out new ideas and methods. These schools can be his nurseries where

the plants of educational progress are sown, cared for, and their progress carefully watched. These teachers and headmasters will be his nurserymen. Such activities should be a definite and very important part of the work of every inspector worth his salt. From such experimental work he can later apply what has been successful in one school on a district or a divisional scale. Thus vital progress will be made. It is only the inspectors who can organize and bring about this general progress. They can be pioneers, instead of, as is often the case, reluctantly following where they should have been leading.

It follows that those who occupy this key position must be people possessing certain qualities.

In the first place it is necessary for an inspector to be a man of some educational vision, with a wide knowledge of modern developments in education and in the philosophy of education. We still find inspectors who can lay it down as a definite principle, that the worth and progress of a school are to be judged by its examination results. Now though one would not decry examination results, no education worth the name is of the sort which simply concentrates on examination results and is content to be judged by them. From inspectors whose vision of the work committed to them is bounded by examination results, little can be expected in the way of progressive development. An inspecting officer, junior or senior, must be one who can keep himself above mere office routine, returns, figures and

statistics, and can keep in touch with the latest and best thought on education. Examinations and examination results are only one, and not the most important part of a school's work, and to choose to test the whole work of a school by them is to take an easy and deadening way of performing the task that has been given.

In the second place those who occupy this key position must be possessed of broad and liberal minds. It is a commonplace that different inspectors have different whims. Sometimes, to be sure, what teachers and headmasters look on as whims are really valuable ideas and suggestions. But sometimes it does happen that inspectors shut their eyes to any other way of doing things except the one way which appeals to them as the best. This method or plan they therefore impose on everybody. An inspector should have an open mind and should always be on his guard against the demon of authority which brings him so much temptation. If headmasters or teachers have other ways of doing certain things from that favoured by the inspector, the latter should be prepared to examine them dispassionately, to allow a chance for them to be tested in actual practice, and then, if finally convinced that they are not of value, he should say so and give his reasons, or, better still, discuss the matter frankly with the teacher or the headmaster concerned and give his reasons for his opinion. But the inspector should never get the idea that just because he is an inspector therefore he is infallible (or even that he should try to keep up a show of being infallible).

and necessarily knows more than the headmasters and teachers under his supervision. There is nothing to warrant such an opinion in many cases.

In the third place those who hold this key position must have constructive minds rather than destructive ones. It is unfortunately true of many inspectors that their idea of their work does not rise above that of being a competent critic. Now admittedly critics have a very useful function to perform and criticism is needed. If offered in the right spirit it is gratefully received. But to stop short at criticism, as is so often done, is to fail in the most important branch of the work. It is not a difficult matter to go into a school and find fault with this and that and the other thing, to write in the log-book that this class is weak in English reading and that one is not up to the standard in history ; that one teacher does not do oral work in English well, and that another does not teach Urdu as it ought to be taught. It does not require very much training to be able to do these things. But this is only the minor part of the work. Every inspector ought to be more concerned with the other and more important part, the constructive aspect of the work.

When the inspector finds a class weak in a subject or finds a teacher using unsatisfactory methods, he should suggest remedies to the teacher, show him how the class ought to be taught, point out where his methods are poor and how to improve. If inspections were always carried out in this constructive way, rather than from

the mainly critical and destructive point of view, the visit of the inspector would not be the 'bogy' which it very often is at present. I am not decrying criticism. Teachers cannot improve without it. But I am trying to emphasize the fact that criticism is less than half the work, and that without the constructive side, the criticism loses most of its value.

In this connexion also, it will not be out of place to point out that it is as much a part of an inspector's work to give appreciation of good work as it is to find fault with unsatisfactory work. The effect of the grant-in-aid system, especially when departments are hard up, is that inspectors become very chary of making any encouraging remarks in the log-book or about the work of teachers in case they may have to give more grant. But an inspector who fails to commend when commendation is deserved, is failing as much in his work as one who fails to criticize when criticism is deserved.

In the fourth place those who hold this key position must be sympathetic. It is impossible truly to sum up a teacher's work or a school's work unless teacher, class and school are approached in a spirit of sympathy. This is not to say that the inspector is to gloss over things or turn blind eyes to faults. That is not true sympathy. But he should be prepared to take all considerations into account, to have a friendly attitude to headmaster and teachers, to appreciate what has been done well, and to point out in a friendly way what has been badly done. One sometimes finds inspectors who seem incapable of

realizing the well-known fact that classes vary greatly from year to year. One year a school will have a good Class V and the next year somehow or other a collection of morons descend on the school. Naturally the best of teachers has an impossible task to bring the average of the latter collection up to what it ought to be. This, as I say, is well-known to all except inspectors. They have a standard for the class from which, if there is any deviation, it is the teacher's fault. A teacher will have taught a class satisfactorily for ten years or more and then suddenly one year his work becomes unsatisfactory. One would imagine that the assumption would be that the teacher's work was the same but that he had a much more difficult class to deal with that particular year. At any rate in such cases the inspector is always well-advised if he is guided by the headmaster's judgement, and the vagaries of a class should not always be put down to bad teaching. It is possible for classes to vary greatly through no fault of the teacher.

Then there is the teacher who is nervous, to whom the visit of the inspector is a nightmare. He does not do himself justice ; he teaches in front of the inspector in a way that he would never teach when left to himself. He shows up all his bad points, and his good points remain hidden. If the inspector is of a sympathetic nature he will be able to put such a teacher at his ease, and will, indeed, go out of his way to do so. And in any case he will get the headmaster's opinion before coming to a final judgement on the work of the teacher.

The spirit of sympathy can also be shown in other ways in the treatment of headmaster and teachers by the inspector. An inspector gains nothing by sarcasm and rudeness in his dealings with teachers nor does he make his work any more effective. It should be an invariable rule, and is, with good inspectors, that teachers are to be treated with unfailing courtesy. If reprimands or cautions have to be issued, this should not be done, of course, in front of the class. This may seem obvious, but it is a point that is sometimes forgotten. Inspectors should make a practice of talking with individual teachers about their work after the inspection is over, and not simply of talking with the headmaster. Some time will certainly be taken up in this way, but such talks would be a great help to the teachers and would certainly help to improve the standard of teachers and schools. Such personal interviews would be of great help to the inspector in judging the work of a teacher, as it is not enough simply to write remarks in log-books and on teachers' certificates.

METHODS OF INSPECTION

In inspecting a class, the inspector should always try to put class and teacher at their ease. The teacher should be allowed to teach the class at first. But as has been pointed out the inspector should watch the teacher closely and see whether he is the victim of nerves or not. Some teachers are spurred to greater and better efforts by the presence of the inspector. Others are like the

rabbit in the presence of the snake. In such cases the headmaster may be asked to take the class. Always however the inspector should also take the class himself. He should be careful to distribute his attentions over the whole class and not simply pick pupils here and there, who may be good and may not. He should also watch to see that the teacher when taking the class does not concentrate on his good pupils.

The written work of classes should be examined. That is, the inspector should look through the written work that has been done. It is not usually wise to give written tests at the time of the inspection. Time alone does not permit and an inspection should not degenerate into an examination. Sometimes it is a good plan to get all the exercise books of all classes in a department in one subject collected in one room so that all may be seen at one time. They should be arranged class-wise. In this way it is sometimes possible to get a better general idea of the standard of work and of what is being done. Although it is not usually possible to look at every book, as fair a selection as possible should be made and the inspector should be careful not to come to conclusions either favourable or unfavourable on insufficient data.

It should always be remembered that it is very difficult to sum up a year's work in a few minutes. It cannot be done by staging a small examination, and, if results are bad, assuming that the work has been bad. The term examination records of the class should always be examined and teachers should be required to keep

the answer papers of the class for the examinations that have preceded the inspection in the same year. The inspector should make a point of seeing these. He should also have the progress reports of the class with him when inspecting the class. He should find out definitely from the teacher who are the best boys and who are the worst. Often the inspector trusts to a haphazard picking out of various boys. He may be lucky or he may not. In either case he gets a wrong impression. It is also not wise to trust to getting an impression from the way in which hands are raised in response to questions. This may mean something. It may mean nothing. But if the inspector finds out from the records and from the teacher which boys are weak and which are good, he will be able to come to a much fairer estimate of the class.

In this connexion the inspector should remember that he should always consult the headmaster and get his estimate of a class. The headmaster has a much better chance of knowing the class than the inspector can possibly have.

In subjects with practical work such as science and drawing the inspector should always get practical work done by the pupils. It is a better test than asking questions on theory. He should keep the syllabus in mind and not expect impossibilities. When a class has to cover the whole of Indian and of English history in two years it is not reasonable to complain because there

is not an historical map every four or five pages of the pupils' exercise books.

The chief aim of the inspector should be to try to assess the spirit of a school as well as the mere instructional condition of the school. Records of staff meetings and activities ; the absence or presence of extra-school activities of various sorts will help to show this. The presence or absence of any experimental work in educational methods or organization will be a sure index of the spirit of a school. The discipline on the playing-field and the organization of the physical activities of the school are also telling features of the work of a school.

An inspector must always beware of letting his visit call forth show. Schools are sometimes fond of putting on shows on the occasion of the inspector's visit. This should be severely discouraged. For this reason an occasional unheralded visit to a school is a very good thing. This need not be made in a suspicious frame of mind. It should be a perfectly friendly, more or less informal visit. If the attitude of the inspector is right schools will welcome such visits and will profit by them. They will certainly give the inspector a better idea of the normal working of the school than does the full-dress inspection.

If there are parent-teacher associations it is always a good thing for the inspector to meet them. The inspector can discuss with them the problems and difficulties of the school, can suggest measures which he

thinks ought to be taken, and in this way can be of great assistance to the school and to those interested in it.

The inspector should also, if possible, meet the managing committee. Registration work in the school has to be carefully inspected and there are often matters which have to be brought to the notice of the managing committee, which they can set right or improve. Again here, the inspector's help and suggestions can be of the greatest value, and it is much more satisfactory to meet the committee personally than to deal with such matters by correspondence. This is a fact that should be always kept in mind by inspectors. The personal touch counts for a great deal and it is well worth the extra time which it necessitates.

From what has been said about the inspector and his work, it will be clear that an inspector has to keep himself up to date. Again, all that was said about the necessity for a headmaster keeping himself *au fait* with what is going on in the educational world, and with new methods and experiments, applies with still more force to the inspector. There is a very great danger of inspectors becoming so engrossed with the routine of their work, and with figures and returns, that they do not take the time to keep up their reading and their contacts. The inspector must be the liveliest man, educationally, in his district or division. He cannot be this unless he makes very special efforts to keep himself in touch with recent knowledge and progress in the educational world. Not only has he to do this for himself,

but he has to pass on what he gains to his headmasters and his teachers. Annual conferences are often held, but they are not as a rule the times of educational inspiration that they might be. In some places educational weeks are held when speakers from other parts of the country are brought in, and teachers and headmasters get something which is really worth while, and of great help to them. A great deal more of this sort of work could be done by inspectors. It is not necessary to have divisional conferences. District conferences may be held several times in the year when methods and work may be discussed and speakers brought who will have some real contribution to make.

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XV

THE PARENT AND THE SCHOOL

It should be the aim of the headmaster and the staff to establish and maintain as close a relation with the parents of their pupils as possible. Both parents and teachers will benefit by this, not to speak of the children. Both parents and teachers can supplement one another's knowledge of the children, and there can be co-operation in the care of the child. The greater this co-operation the more chance there will be of both school and parents discharging faithfully their responsibility to the children. There are numbers of ways in which this relationship between the school and the parent may be established, and when established, strengthened and developed.

PARENTS' DAYS

One day in the year the parents of all the pupils are especially invited to the school and special arrangements are made to entertain them, and to show them what is going on in the school. It is a good plan to have an exhibition of work set out in one or two rooms where specimens of the best work in all subjects from all classes are set out. If any handwork or practical subjects are taught their products add to the interest of the exhibition. If projects are being carried out by lower classes, the best results can be shown. But in ordinary

subjects, with drawings, maps, charts, plans, models, handwriting, diagrams, magazines, an exhibition can be made extremely interesting to both parents and children.

On parents' day the school is given over to the parents, and the pupils are expected to take their parents round to see the school, and to point out anything new which has been done or introduced during the year, or anything in which they are especially interested. In the afternoon a special programme can be put on including displays by Boy Scouts or Girl Guides, Red Cross Societies and so on. In the evening a play may be staged. In rural areas the opportunity may be taken to deal with some aspect of village uplift work. The parents may be invited to dinner with their children and the staff. It is sometimes possible, where there is an annual prize-giving, to hold that on the same day.

The headmaster can take the opportunity of parents' day to explain to parents new plans for school work or organization, the ideals of the school, to set forth lines of possible co-operation between parents and school, to explain difficulties confronting the school, and, in general, to take the parents into his confidence. He can also use the opportunity to meet as many parents as possible and to get to know them better. He should try to keep himself free from any of the work of organization of the function in order to be free to meet parents.

This is a parents' day for the whole school and is an annual function. If the school is divided into houses

as has been suggested in Chapter VII, it is also very advantageous for each house to have a parents' day of its own once a year. The same sort of exhibition and programme may be arranged, but only the parents of the particular house whose day it is, will be invited. On that day the members of the house concerned are given a free hand, and are left free to entertain their parents and show them the school and what is going on. The house tutors can take the opportunity of meeting parents, of talking over with them matters connected with the school, hostel arrangements, teaching methods and so on. They will also have the opportunity of discussing individual pupils with their parents. If these house parents' days are held they should all come during the year and should not be held too close to the annual school parents' day.

PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

A parent-teacher association is an association to which all the staff, and as many of the parents as wish to, may belong. Regular meetings are held, say once a month, and the usual officers of an association are appointed annually. The committee and officers in charge should be representative of both staff and parents and it is preferable for a parent to be president.

Programmes will vary in accordance with local needs, but at every meeting there should be a lecture or a discussion on some subject of educational interest and importance. As often as possible this should have a

reference to the school and the local situation. In these meetings headmaster and staff can ventilate any new ideas they may have, and which they wish to introduce into the school. In this way they can secure the co-operation of parents, and in any case get valuable and probably enlightening criticism of their ideas.

Such an association can aid very greatly in establishing co-operation between school and home. In places where parents are educated, associations can be of great value to both school and parents. In rural areas they can be a very valuable educative factor.

Every parent of every pupil should be known by at least two members of the staff; the class teacher of the pupil and the house tutor of the house to which the pupil belongs. The headmaster of course will make a point of knowing as many of the parents as possible, but it is the duty of every class teacher to know all the parents of his pupils, and of every house tutor to know all the parents of all the pupils in his house. The advantages of this are obvious. By establishing a close contact with the parents of his pupils the teacher can gain the co-operation of the home and thus make his task easier. A friendship established between the representatives of the two greatest influences in the life of the child can result only in good. The teacher will understand the pupil better, and the parent will know better where care or pressure is needed. The chances of school and home pulling in different directions will be greatly reduced. Parents will come to understand

by the parents. The officers of a Parent-Teacher Association who are parents could be made members of the managing board or committee of the school, or that organization could be used to elect the allotted number of parents to the governing body of the school.

REPORTS

Reports should be sent out from the school to the parents once a term. The report that is sent out should be as full as possible. That is, it should give the parent as much information as possible about the development of his child. This should be not merely information about his mental development and about his standing in the different subjects in the school, but also about his physical, social and moral development. Every aspect of the child's life which the school influences and has anything to do with should figure in the report. The parent is then enabled to get a full view of how his child is progressing, and such a report also acts as a corrective to the idea that ability to score marks in an examination is the sole test of what a school is doing and is the sole thing which a school seeks to develop. An example of such a report form is given at the end of the chapter.

When this terminal report is sent out it is also a good plan to send out with it a form for the parent to fill in. This secures for the school information which will help it in its work. The information thus supplied by the parent will help the teachers who have to

deal with the child, and may also help them to aid the parent in his dealings with his child in the home. Anything of this nature which helps the teachers to understand the circumstances of the individual children in their charge will be of the greatest value.

After the annual medical inspection, parents should be informed what action, if any, is recommended by the doctor, and the class teachers or house tutors should try to persuade the parents of their children to carry out the recommendations of the doctor. Unless this is done the annual medical inspection is not of much use.

As has been pointed out, the parent should be informed by the headmaster whenever he finds it necessary to punish a pupil severely. The fault and the punishment should be reported to the parent with any remarks that the headmaster thinks should be made.

A point is sometimes raised on which there is a good deal of difference of opinion. That is as to whether the terminal report should be confidential or not. Should the child see the report or not? Probably in India there is little chance of his not seeing it. On the whole it is probably better that reports should be written on the assumption that both child and parent are going to see it. If there is anything which the headmaster wishes to communicate to the parent which he does not wish the child to know about, he can write a private letter to the parent. It has been found that a very good plan is for the headmaster to invite pupils to come and see him about their reports and discuss them with him.

Especially with older pupils this can be a very valuable proceeding, and such a discussion gives the child confidence and an interest in his progress. Similarly the headmaster should invite parents to discuss their children's reports with him. Needless to say care should be taken to see that the reports really reach the hands of parents.

TERMINAL REPORT

Name..... Class..... House.....

1. CITIZENSHIP

1. Co-operation	...	7. Carefulness :	
2. Helpfulness	...	(a) In work	...
3. Effort and industry	...	(b) With material	...
4. Sense of honour	...	8. Conscientiousness	...
5. Courtesy	...	9. Discharge of responsibility	...
6. Sportsmanship	...	10. Initiative	...

2. HEALTH HABITS

1. Personal cleanliness	...	6. Interest in drill	...
(Nails, teeth, clothes, etc.)	...	7. Ability at drill	...
2. Use of latrines and cleanliness in compound	...	8. Physical Development :	
3. Boarding-house habits	...	Increase in weight	...
(Sleeping, eating, etc.)	...	Increase in height	...
4. Interest in games	...	Increase in chest measurement	...
5. Ability at games	...	9. Posture	...

3. ARTS AND CRAFTS

Drawing

Practical work	...
Theoretical work	...
Freehand	...
Model	...
Scale	...
General interest	...
Independent work	...

Agriculture

Practical work	...
Theoretical work	...
Willingness to work	...
General interest	...
Independent work	...

Tailoring

Practical work	...
Theoretical work	...
Initiative	...
General interest	...
Independent work	...

Carpentry

Practical work	...
Theoretical work	...
Initiative	...
General interest	...
Independent work	...

<i>Weaving</i>		<i>Book-binding</i>	
Practical work	...	Practical work	...
General interest	...	General interest	...
Initiative	...	Initiative	...
Independent work	...	Independent work	...
4. GENERAL SUBJECTS			
<i>English</i>		<i>Mathematics</i>	
Oral	...	General work	...
Written	...	Grasp of subject	...
General interest	...	Ability to apply rules	...
Use outside classroom	...	General interest	...
Independent work	...	Independent work	...
		Mental work	...
<i>Mother-tongue</i>		<i>Classical language</i>	
Oral	...	Oral	...
Written	...	Written	...
Use of imagination	...	General interest	...
Vocabulary and ability to use vocabulary	...	Independent work	...
General interest	...		
Independent work	...		
<i>History</i>		<i>Science</i>	
Memory work	...	Practical	...
Grasp of principles	...	Theoretical	...
Historical reasoning	...	Development of scientific mind and approach	...
Practical work	...	Initiative	...
General interest	...	General interest	...
Independent work	...	Independent work	...
<i>Rural Science</i>		<i>Geography</i>	
Practical work	...	Theoretical work	...
Theoretical work	...	Practical work	...
Initiative	...	Grasp of principles	...
General interest	...	Geographical reasoning	...
Independent work	...	Independent work	...

5. ATTENDANCE

Possible attendance	Main reasons for absence.....
Actual attendance
Times late
Teacher's (House Tutor's) remarks on general, physical, mental and moral progress of student	
Headmaster's remarks and recommendations to parent	

A. excellent; A-. very good; B+. good; B. satisfactory; B-. fairly satisfactory; C. poor; F. failure; not up to standard; X. very poor indeed.

PARENTS' REPORT

(To be sent back after the holidays)

Physical

Health; any fever etc.?

Activity. What kind of activity?

Did he play games?

What time did he usually go to bed?

What time did he usually get up?

Social

What sort of friends?

Is he helpful at home?

What is his attitude to home and parents?

Mental

Did he do any study regularly?

If so, how much daily?

What does he seem to be fond of?

Has he done any mental work besides school work?

Personal

What are the likes and dislikes that you have noticed in these holidays? In food, work, play or anything else?

Has he any fears? If so of what?

In what does he seem to be chiefly interested?

Has he any hobbies?

Requests and recommendations to the school authorities.....

Recommendations to the parent.

1. See that he goes to bed early and gets up early.
2. See that he plays games regularly if at all possible, or gets some interesting exercise.
3. Be careful of the society in which he moves.
4. Give him regular work to do to help in the home.
5. Give him a quiet place, if possible, in which to study.
6. See that he does some study regularly every day.
7. Try to interest him in books and subjects outside the school courses.
8. Try to help him to develop an interest in some hobby.

XVI

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

THE question of whether there should be religious instruction in schools raises a number of difficulties. In the case of Government schools there is the matter of religious neutrality. How is it possible to give religious instruction without violating religious neutrality? In the case of private schools which have pupils of different religions attending the school, there is the undesirable business of forcing instruction in one particular religion on pupils belonging to different religions. This is open to the answer that parents need not send their children to the school if they do not wish them to get that particular kind of instruction. This is all right where there are a number of schools in the same place, but does not meet the case of the area catered for by a single school. Only in the case of communal schools, where practically all the pupils belong to one religion, is the question easily solved.

In some places a way out of the difficulty is sought by teaching, or trying to teach, morality and not religion. This has been tried in other countries besides India. It is tried by Government departments in this country. A large section of 'morality' is common to all religions and it is felt that this can safely be taught without infringing the religious susceptibilities of anyone. As a

matter of fact, however, it is an almost impossible task, and in the long run an unprofitable one.

It is really impossible to teach morality without relating it to religion. It is the religious sanction that gives the motivation which instils life into morality. This religious sanction may not always be evident even to the moral person himself. But his morality is the conscious or unconscious result of his religion or of the religious training he had when young, and of the general religious atmosphere of his social environment. The moral person may not realize this, nor admit it to be true, but his morality is inevitably determined by his religious bias even though that bias may be an unconscious one.

But not only is morality founded in religion. It also results in a quickening and deepening of the religious life of the one who is practising morality. The surest way to find a path through religious difficulty and doubt is to act according to what one's conscience decides is right and good, *to act* in other words, according to the highest that one knows. The resultant development may not be called religion or religious by the person concerned, but there can be no doubt that, thinking of religion in the broadest sense, it is so and will lead to a greater knowledge of, and communion with, the Divine.

Religion supplies the motivation for morality. Without it, there is great difficulty in developing true morality. Just as we cannot conceive of a true religion divorced from morality, so also the converse is true, and it is

difficult to conceive of a live morality without a religious foundation and motivation. Religion supplies the standard of our morality as well as the motivation. The sacred books of different religions, and the central figures whose lives and teachings are enshrined in those books, supply standards of action and inspire the ideals which guide action and without which it is impossible to develop any morality which will count for anything in the life of the pupil. Feeling is the dynamic of action and religion inspires the feeling which urges to moral action.

It is therefore essential that in any school which is seeking to develop the all-round personality of its pupils, religion should be taught. In fact, the whole basis of the education offered should be a religious one. That is, the ideals which guide and determine plans and policies should be the highest accepted by those who are responsible for the school, and the characters which they seek to develop in their pupils should be characters in which the religious element is the foundation. The ideals will naturally be supplied by their religion. At the same time there must be a tolerance and a readiness to admit that we cannot expect everyone to accept our views, especially on the subject of religion. It is infinitely better for a pupil to be a sincere follower of one religion, doing his best to develop along the lines of the ideals in that religion even although we may consider that his religion is farther from ultimate truth than our own, than for us to keep him away from all religious influences and have no instruction if he will not follow the religion which we consider superior.

There should, then, be religious instruction in every school. It can be done without infringing religious neutrality. It is not difficult in Government schools to arrange for representatives of different religions to visit the school at definite times, and take the pupils belonging to their community for religious instruction in their own religion. Often teachers in the school will be prepared to do this. Arrangements of this sort can be made by parent-teacher associations where they are in existence. In private schools which are more homogeneous, and where pupils belonging to one community predominate, regular instruction in that religion may be given. There should, however, be no attempt to force pupils belonging to other communities to attend religious instruction if they do not want to do so. It should be quite voluntary. Compulsory religion never yet did anyone any good, and a conscience clause should always be respected in every school where instruction in only one religion is given.

If there are sufficient teachers for religious instruction and if arrangements can be made, it is much better to have religious instruction in all classes at the same time, either at the beginning, or at the end of school, preferably at the beginning, rather than at different times for different classes during the day. The possibility of doing this will depend on local circumstances. One thing should be kept in mind by the authorities, namely that no teacher should be forced to give religious instruction. It is not a subject with which every teacher,

merely because he belongs to a certain religion which is the predominating one in the school, is competent to deal. It is worse than having no instruction at all to put it in the hands of a teacher who is not fitted by his own religious life to give it.

Worship is an important part of religion and of life. The work of the day should commence with a short service of worship. This is not difficult to organize when all or the great majority belong to one religion. In other cases where pupils are mixed, forms of worship, hymns, prayers and so on may be worked out which will be acceptable to all, and in which all may join. Different teachers may conduct this in turn, but it should be a voluntary service. No teacher should be compelled to conduct it and no pupil should be compelled to attend it who does not wish to. A school should have a room set apart for quiet meditation and devotional reading. Worship may take the form of silent worship with great advantage. Teachers and scholars will need to be educated up to the use of silence ; but worshipping together in silence, praying together in silence, especially where the pupils belong to different religions, will often enable them to worship much more truly than if someone leads the worship. When someone of a different religion leads the worship there is the possibility of his so leading it that those of other religions cannot enter into it fully. If worship, or some portion of the worship service, is conducted in silence, this possibility is done away with. It must be emphasized, however, that silent worship is not a thing that can be beneficial without education.

Another good plan in connexion with the definitely religious side of work in a school, is to have a quiet room where pupils can go for devotional reading, for prayer or for meditation. This room should be open at all reasonable times and copies of the sacred books of all religions represented in the school might be placed in it. In some schools where a room is not available, a part of the garden is marked off for this purpose, and is definitely reserved for purposes of worship and meditation. In every school there should be some such provision for pupils to worship and pray.

In mixed schools, that is in schools with pupils belonging to more than one religion, it is often beneficial to organize courses in comparative religion for the older pupils. A syllabus of subjects may be drawn up for a term and representatives of different religions be asked to state constructively their views on the subject in question. Thus statements of the Hindu, Muslim, Christian, and Sikh view of the future life might be given, a day or more if necessary being allotted to each. It has to be clearly understood in organizing any such scheme that all destructive criticism of, or attacks on, other religions are quite out of order and are not to be indulged in. What is wanted is a constructive statement of the view of each religion on the subject in question. Such statements or lectures may be given by members of the staff, or outsiders may be called in if advisable or necessary.

An important point in connexion with the organization of religious instruction in schools is that opportunity should be provided, if at all possible, for action in accordance with what has been taught. It is probably true of all religions that there is too much theory, too much talking and lecturing and preaching, and not enough practical carrying out in daily life the theory that is talked about. No series of lessons in religious instruction is complete unless it culminates in action.

This can best be provided for by using the problem method of approach. That is, the starting-point of a lesson or of a series of lessons is a problem of conduct or of life which is confronting members of the class and which they are anxious to solve. This problem forms the starting-point. Discussion about the problem is held in the class and the teacher endeavours to help the class to define the problem, to see it in relation to their village or town, and also in relation to their personal lives. They analyse it and find the causes behind the problem and the factors which produce the difficulty, social and individual. They discover the traits of character in individuals which are responsible for the state of affairs which constitutes the problem or difficulty.

Having analysed the problem and found its causes, the next thing is to relate it to the religion of those who are facing it, to find what their religion has to say on the matter, what teaching there is concerning the matter under discussion, how the problem has been solved or faced by others in the past. From this discussion can be

thrashed out a remedy, or a method of trying to find a remedy. Religion will thus be brought into vital relationship with a problem of everyday life. The class can also decide what special traits of character are necessary for the solving of the problem and how they are to be cultivated.

Having done all this, the class should then decide on what practical action they can take in connexion with the problem, that is, what each one of them can do and what they can do as a group. With the help of the teacher they can plan and carry out definite activities which will enable them to put their religion into practice. Later a conference may be held to find out how they have succeeded and to get help with difficulties which may have arisen. This is a method for use with older pupils from twelve years of age and upwards. It is a method which may, in rural areas, be very satisfactorily linked up with a programme of rural reconstruction. The problems which those engaged in rural reconstruction are seeking to solve are just the problems which the boys and girls of the village meet in their daily lives. A syllabus of religious instruction which deals with these automatically links itself up with practical life and morals.

If a school is organized according to the project method it is frequently possible to link up religious instruction with projects which are being carried out in connexion with other subjects in school. The more this can be done, the better it will be. This is also a problem

approach, since the project is dealing with a need or a problem which the pupils have felt and which has to be met. It is all to the good if religion can be naturally brought in as integral to the measures being taken to meet the need.

XVII

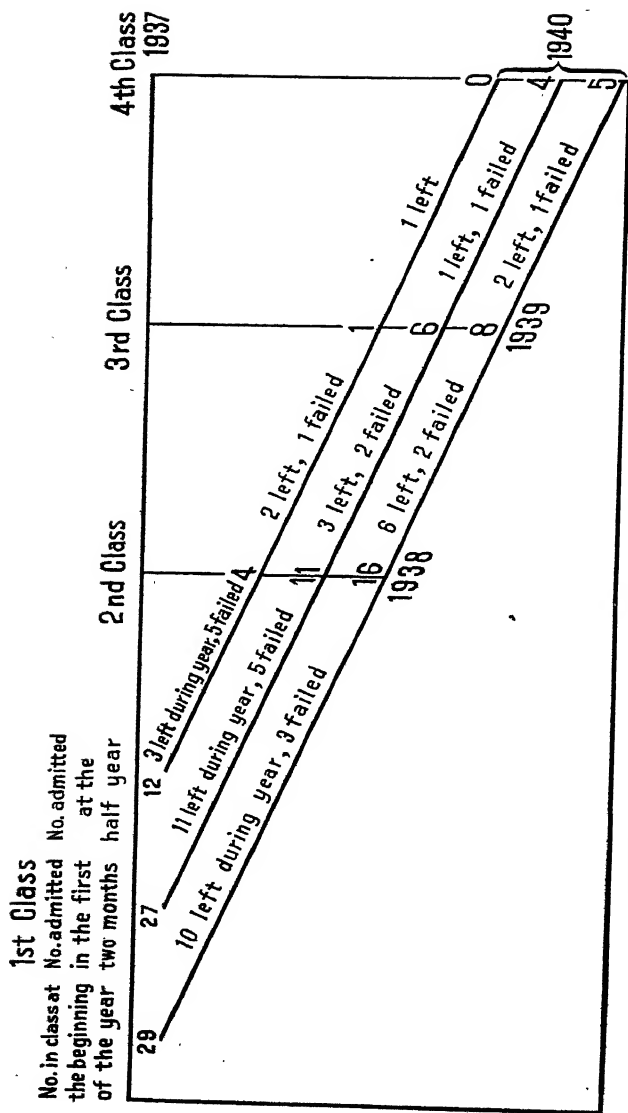
RURAL EDUCATION

PROBLEMS OF EXPANSION AND SUPERVISION

THERE are certain problems which every teacher in a rural school, and especially in a rural primary school, has to face. Those who have the supervision of such schools, and those who are interested in the expansion of primary education, should have a knowledge of these problems. It may not be possible for any one individual to do much towards their solution. But everyone ought to understand them so that he may be able to understand the teacher's position and to know where he chiefly needs help.

1. *Wastage and leakage.*—It is well known that a large percentage of those who start in the first class do not reach class IV. This means waste of money and energy, for in spite of what Mr Parulekar says¹ I do not think that those who have not been through class IV can be said to be literate. As a matter of fact, even those who have been through class VI, have been known to relapse into illiteracy. They have done nothing to keep up what they have learnt. It is this factor, the keeping up after leaving school, that is really the crux of the matter. But we are safe in saying that children failing to go through class IV are not literate

¹ R. V. Parulekar, *Literacy in India* (Macmillan & Co.).



A chart used in the Punjab to enable teachers and headmasters to check up leakage at a glance. The figures given here are imaginary.

in any permanent sense, and the money and time and energy spent on them has been wasted.

It may be said that compulsory education is the solution. If compulsion is a real thing, then it would have the desired effect. But for even compulsion to be successful there must be public opinion behind it. There is little hope of bringing in a successful scheme of compulsory primary education unless the great majority of villagers are in favour of it. We are far from that position today. We have always to keep in mind the economic difficulty which faces the villager, for which compulsion provides no solution. Many parents can ill spare the small amounts which their children can earn if they do not go to school.

In this matter the teacher has two individuals to deal with ; the child who sits in front of him in school, and the child's parents. He can attempt to find some solution for this problem of wastage in these two directions.

It is very often the case that, if a boy is very keen on doing something, sooner or later he gets his way. If, therefore, a boy is very keen on coming to school, the chances are that he will come. One aspect of a solution of the question of wastage is creating in the child the desire to come to school, and the desire to stay there once he has come. This desire is too often conspicuous by its absence.

How then can this desire be created ?

In the first place the relationship between teacher and pupil should be one of friendship. The pupil should

feel that the teacher understands him, sympathises with him, is ready to help him at all times, and that he can go to the teacher with anything and always be sure of a sympathetic hearing. If the pupil feels thus about his teacher, he will at least not be averse to coming to school, and will, in most cases, want to come.

The implication of this is that the teacher will treat his pupils as individual persons and not as a mass. He will take an interest in each individual, in his health, in his home conditions, in his progress, in his work. He will be in a position to help each individual as an individual. The child will feel that a personal interest is being taken in him. We are always attracted to people who take a personal interest in us, and children are the same as grown-ups in this respect. Attraction to the teacher means attraction to the school. The teacher's aim should be to establish, as far as possible under modern conditions, the old relationship of 'guru' and 'chela'.

This is not an easy task, especially in large schools with large classes. It is not so difficult in the smaller village school. But difficult or not, this should be the teacher's aim, and the nearer we get to achieving this aim, the nearer we will get to some solution of this problem. Meanwhile we must do our best to create a public opinion that will not tolerate large classes.

The teacher can also contribute to the solution of the problem of leakage by paying attention to the methods used in school, and here his supervisor can be of great assistance. As long as the child finds school a dull, un-

interesting place, he will not be anxious to stay there, particularly if there is no pressure from the home for him to stay at school. But if he finds that school is a place where he is encouraged to be active, where he does things and makes things, when he can feel that what he does has a real connexion with life as he knows it, then there will not be so much difficulty in keeping him at school.

It is therefore of vital importance to take full advantage of the child's interest in play and in activity of all sorts. The whole range of devices known as 'the play way' should be employed by teachers in every primary school. Apart from this being educationally sound, since every child learns best in the spirit of play, it will make school a place of interest and joy. This is not to say that school can be made one big game. Play way methods must serve an educational purpose. But this gives us a very wide range and we need not be afraid of easily going beyond the limit. The method known as the project method is really a play method, and those who have used it know what a new place it makes of school.

The play way can also be brought into the service of discipline. This is a factor which has to be considered if school is to be made an attractive place. The larger place fear has in school life, the more difficult it will be to persuade children to stay at school if they have a chance of leaving. The best way to eliminate fear is to use the play way spirit by means of as much self-government as may be possible, however elementary such

self-government may be. It is possible to get rid of fear in discipline without having self-government of course, but a determined effort to get rid of fear should be made whatever means are used.

School will also be a more attractive place for children if they are given plenty of opportunities for making things. Handcraft of some kind or other has a natural appeal for practically all children. They will be much more willing to stay in school if they find that there they can satisfy their desire to be active, to do things and to make things.

The introduction of handcrafts in schools, while having an effect on the attitude of children will also have an important effect on the attitude of the other person the teacher and supervisor has to deal with, the parent. While many village parents fail to see much use in the ordinary work of the school, they can appreciate the value of a craft, especially if it is a craft that promises to be a means of alleviating the economic situation. The villager can see the advantage of learning to make simple clothes, to weave cloth, to make and mend simple things needed in the home and on the farm. If he finds his children learning these things in school there will be a change in his attitude towards the school. But if handcraft is taken up it must be taken up seriously. We need to have someone who knows the craft well and can teach it. It is no use teaching a craft so that children do not learn it properly.

The teacher can also help to solve the problem if he

seeks to cultivate a friendly interest in the parents of his children and their concerns. All that will be suggested later about the relation of the school to the community has relevance here. If the parent finds that the teacher is interested in his conditions, is willing to meet him and help him whenever possible, to do what he can to help him to improve his financial condition, to give him good advice, and to be generally sympathetic, then he will grow to trust the teacher. He will then be much readier to listen to the teacher and to take his advice when the question of his child remaining at school arises.

Parents will naturally be much more interested in education if they themselves are educated. Hence all efforts that teachers can make towards securing adult literacy in their villages will have its effect on the solution of the problem we are considering. All the work that is put into adult literacy campaigns will have its favourable repercussions on ordinary primary school work.

These are some ways in which teachers can help to solve this serious problem of leakage irrespective of any measures that may be taken by the Government. I would go as far as to say that compulsion can never be really successful until the teacher plays his part in the ways that have been suggested.

2. *Irregular attendance.*—The question of irregular attendance is closely linked to that of leakage, and the same measures which can be taken to deal with wastage and leakage will have an equally good effect on irregular attendance.

There are several causes for irregular attendance.

- (a) Lack of interest on the part of child or parent or both.
- (b) The bad health of the child.
- (c) The employment of the child on work to help his parents.
- (d) Distance of the school from the home.

The first of these can be dealt with along the lines we have considered in dealing with leakage.

The second cause can be dealt with only by seeking to ensure that medical help is obtained. As far as he can, the teacher will see that such things as sore eyes are attended to, and will use the knowledge of first aid that he obtained during his training. But for more serious things the teacher will have to deal personally with the parent and try to persuade him to get medical attention for his child, and to follow the advice when he has got it. If possible there should be a yearly medical inspection and the teacher should keep weight charts, etc.

The third cause is an economic one with which the teacher cannot deal as a rule. All that he can do is to talk matters over with the parent, and for the two in co-operation to make the best arrangements possible. Sometimes the hours of school can be changed to suit circumstances. Holidays can be fixed when there are busy times such as at harvesting, and at such times schools may be run for part time only.

The fourth difficulty can be met only by opening more schools. It is a difficulty only in some provinces.

3. *Stagnation*.—There are again several causes for this.

- (a) Bad teaching methods.
- (b) Irregular attendance.
- (c) Uneven standard of intelligence in classes.
- (d) Persistent ill-health.
- (e) Time of admission.
- (f) Single teacher schools and resultant lack of attention given to pupils.

(a) As has been suggested in dealing with the problem of leakage, improvement in teaching method, especially the introduction of play way methods and activity methods, is of great importance. Many children do not make progress simply because activity methods are not used. We must put into practice the principle of learning by doing. As a matter of fact, the more backward the children, the greater the necessity of plenty of handcraft work.

(b) Suggestions for dealing with this problem have been made.

(c) The village teacher cannot be expected to give intelligence tests. But he can make some estimate of the intelligence of his class, and grade it into groups according to intelligence. He will then be able to grade his methods and his attention to some extent. He will also be able to get some help from the brighter members of the class if he makes them leaders of groups. To deal with this cause of stagnation really satisfactorily as

much individual work by the teacher as is possible, is needed. It is not a cause that can be remedied easily. The teacher can only help those who are backward to do their best. When this is the cause of stagnation one can never expect to prevent it altogether. Supervisors should always take this into account when looking at registers for cases of stagnation. The natural endowment of the individual child is often left out of consideration, which is unfair to the teacher.

(d) Here, as has been suggested, medical aid and the co-operation of the parent is needed.

(e) Admissions should be limited to the first month or six weeks of the year. The teacher's task would then be made much easier. It is manifestly unfair to expect a teacher to take children into the first class two or three months after the beginning of the year, and to bring them up to the standard of those who have been in the class from the first month. Again, where children are admitted in the seventh and eighth months of the year, they should be put in a separate preparatory or kindergarten class and not allowed into the first class till the beginning of the following year.

(f) The problem of stagnation will never be solved as long as the teacher is asked to do an impossible job. Usually, to solve it individual attention to children is needed. Until teachers are given numbers they can handle this cannot be done.

One thing supervisors can do to help with this problem and indeed with all these problems, is to see that good

teachers are put with the lower classes. The first class is the most important class in the school and needs the best teacher. Many of the village school problems would be more easily solved if there were first rate teaching in the first class.

4. *Single teacher schools*.—These are unsatisfactory and difficult. They will be with us however for some time to come so the teacher and supervisor must make the best of a bad situation. There are certain things to which special attention should be paid.

(a) The teacher must pay special attention to his time-table in order to make sure that the combination of subjects in the classes at any one time is as manageable as possible. When one class is doing something which demands the more or less continual presence of the teacher, for example, the first class learning reading, the other classes should be doing work which they can do with a minimum of supervision, for example, working examples in arithmetic, or silent reading.

(b) The teacher should try to get hold of or make for himself apparatus which will enable pupils to work by themselves or in pairs or in groups. The arithmetic cards as described in *The Progressive School*¹ and the lessons suggested in the *Talimi Khel*² series of books are examples of what can be done. Projects can be exten-

¹ W. M. Ryburn, *The Progressive School* (Oxford University Press).

² W. M. Ryburn, *Talimi Khel*, Bks. I-III (Oxford University Press).

sively employed. In the two upper classes, especially in connexion with such subjects as geography and the mother-tongue, assignments may be used. As a matter of fact this is one real benefit that children educated in a single teacher school can get, namely learning to work for and by themselves or in small groups. Supervisors can be of great assistance to teachers in such schools if they do everything possible to supply them with useful apparatus.

(c) The teacher should avail himself of a certain amount of help from the best pupils in each class. He must do this very judiciously, but a certain amount of such help can be given without these good pupils suffering. For instance the teacher can take a reading lesson with a class and then give each of the good pupils two of the weaker ones to take over the same lesson. Good pupils in arithmetic can correct the work of others. Use can also be made of such leaders in project work and games.

(d) The teacher must have a definite practical plan for the day's operations. He should know definitely what each class is going to do in each period. Needless to say careful preparation by the teacher is very necessary. The night before, he should put up on his blackboard work for each class for the coming day. He should not have to do more blackboard preparation work than is unavoidable when school starts. For instance he can put up the numbers of the sums to be done by one class, can indicate the passages from the reader for transcription

or for preparation for dictation for another class. Anything of this nature can be put up for each class, and will greatly contribute to the smooth running of the school. It is obvious that to do this requires careful preparation beforehand.

(e) In some places it may be possible to use a double shift system by which the first two classes, say, come for three hours in the morning, and the other two classes for three hours at a different time of day. The teacher will then have only two classes to attend to at a time. This might also meet the difficulty of children having to work for their parents. It means of course that the total time that the teacher has to work in the day is increased, but on the other hand it makes his work very much easier, more efficient, and reduces the mental strain. The possibility of using any such scheme will depend on local circumstances.

5. *Housing problems.*—In most places this is a very real difficulty that stands in the way of expansion and in the way of good schools. It is difficult to get school buildings. One line along which a solution of this problem may be found is in open air schools. These may take several forms. There may be a single wall with a thatch roof sloping down from the wall, and supported at the outside edge by posts. This thatch may go down on both sides of the wall if desired. The same style of arrangement can be made with two walls intersecting each other at right angles, with thatch roofs. This gives four compartments. Another type of open air

building is for a central pole to have a circular thatch roof sloping down from it to a circle of shorter poles. The circle of poles may be connected by a low wall. This type of shelter can be put up for between 30 and 40 rupees and provides a very good open air class-room. In case of need of shelter from wind or sun or rain, sacking or scrim can be hung round the side where shelter is needed.

The chief problem in expanding primary education is that of finance and there is nothing that the teacher can do about that. As a matter of fact the primary school teacher everywhere is most inadequately paid, to put it mildly, and there can be no really successful educational system until his conditions and prospects are materially improved. So that from this point of view as well as from that of providing increased facilities, finance looms largely in this matter.

The supervisor of village schools should keep several things in mind.

The village teacher has very few resources to fall back on. He depends on his supervisor for information, help, and encouragement. The supervisor should never let his work degenerate into mere routine. He should make the main object of his visits the inspiring of the teacher to fresh efforts. If he shows a sympathetic interest in the teacher and a knowledge of his difficulties he will have no difficulty in doing this. Then, too, he should make a point of giving information and suggestions about new methods, about books if such are available, about

how to make new apparatus, and about helping the children generally to be active and interested in school.

The supervisor must sternly put down all attempts at 'show'. He must let it be seen from the start that he is out to see real work, and not to waste time over shows, and that he is not to be taken in by attempts to make 'show' cover up lack of real work.

The supervisor should make a point of organizing as much experimental work as can be done, even though it be of a very elementary sort. The assessment of the progress made in such work and a discussion of results secured should be a feature of every visit he makes to a school.

The supervisor should get the teachers in his schools to keep a diary in which difficulties are noted down as they are met. Then on the occasion of his visit the supervisor can be asked to give help with these difficulties and problems. If this is done his visits will greatly increase in practical value.

At each visit after the work of inspecting is finished there should be a conference of the supervisor and the teachers at which things connected with the school and the work can be discussed.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

There is not space here to do more than enumerate some of the ways in which the school can help the community in which it is situated. For a fuller treatment

of this subject the reader may be referred to a number of books.¹

The school will have its effect on the village in two ways ; firstly through the influence of its pupils, and secondly by means of what it can do as a corporate body. The whole of its programme and curriculum will be its activities under the first head. Under the second head the following are avenues of work and service which are often open to village schools and their teachers.

1. Adult literacy work, including the running of a night school. Both teachers and pupils may help in this work.

2. The more general work of adult education. This can be carried on by lectures, exhibitions, lantern lectures, newspaper reading, dramatics and village libraries.

3. Co-operative work can be encouraged. A practical example can be given in the school of how co-operative societies are to be run, and it is sometimes possible to extend this to the running of co-operative shops, co-operative better-living societies and so on.

4. Health work of various descriptions can be undertaken by the school, and also the improvement of the sanitary conditions of the village.

¹ M. Olcott, *Better Village Schools* (Y. M. C. A. Publishing House).

W. M. Ryburn, *The Progressive School* (Oxford University Press).

F. L. Brayne, *Better Villages* (Oxford University Press).

I. W. Moomaw, *Education and Village Improvement* (Oxford University Press).

5. Help can be given to the village farmer in agriculture, by teaching better methods, giving information about different kinds of seeds, and about manuring and other things connected with agriculture. If the school can run experimental plots so much the better.

6. A lead can be given in connexion with girls education and good propaganda work done.

7. Teaching can be given against superstition and against any bad customs which may be found in the village.

8. The school can be a centre for village games and recreation.

9. The school can lead the way in the fight against communalism.

10. The school, by example and precept, can wage a campaign for the beautification of homes and of the village generally.

11. If the school is fortunate enough to have the means for teaching handicrafts it can get cottage industries under way in the village.

12. The school can help the animals of the village and incidentally their owners. Instruction given about the treatment of animals will help their owners to improve their financial conditions.

These are some of the general ways in which the school can be a centre of village uplift and the centre of a better village life. There are other things that the school may do, but each village has its own particular problems and opportunities and the teacher in planning his activities will naturally take into account the local conditions of the village where he is working.

APPENDIX

RULES OF HOCKEY, ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL, RUGGER TOUCH, CRICKET, VOLLEYBALL, BASKETBALL AND MINOR GAMES

HOCKEY

1. The ground is 100 yards long and not more than 60 yards wide nor less than 55 yards wide. For important matches flag posts should be placed at the four corners and also at the centre of the side lines one yard outside the line. Lines shall be drawn inside the ground parallel to the side lines and at a distance of 7 yards from the side lines.

2. There shall be a goal at the centre of each goal (end) line which shall consist of two perpendicular posts 4 yards apart joined by a cross-bar which shall be seven feet from the ground. Posts and cross-bar should not be more than 2 inches broad and not more than 3 inches deep and nets may be attached to the posts, cross-bars, and to the ground behind the goal line.

3. In front of each goal shall be drawn the striking circle. This is drawn by taking each goal post as centre and, with a radius of 15 yards, drawing a quarter circle from the goal line out into the field. These two quarter circles are then joined together by a straight line which will be parallel to the goal and 4 yards in length. The part of the field thus enclosed is called the striking circle. The line showing it should be marked and not dug, as if it is dug the ball may be stopped or diverted. The line shall be 3 inches wide.

4. The ball shall be a leather cricket ball painted white or made of white leather. The weight of the ball shall not be more than $5\frac{3}{4}$ oz. and not less than $5\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

5. Each stick must be of such a size that it can pass through a two inch ring. The total weight must not exceed 28 oz. This

weight must include any rubber handle or ring that may be used. The end of the stick must have rounded edges, and is not to be cut square. There must be no insets in the stick.

6. A team consists of eleven players. Usually there are five forwards, three half-backs, two full-backs and a goalkeeper. The referee must be informed as to which is the goalkeeper at the beginning of the game, and if any change in goalkeeper is made during the game, the referee must be informed.

7. The duration of the game shall be two periods of 35 minutes each, unless otherwise agreed upon mutually by the captains. At half-time the teams shall change ends, and the interval shall not exceed five minutes.

8. The game shall be started by one player from each team bullying the ball in the centre of the ground. In the bully each player shall hit the ground on his own side of the ball, and then tap the flat side of his opponent's stick three times, hitting first the ground and then tapping his opponent's stick. After this, one of these two players must hit the ball to bring it into play. The two players who are bullying off shall stand squarely facing the side lines. Every other player shall be on-side when the bully is being taken; that is each player will be nearer to his own goal line than the ball is. No other player shall stand nearer to the players who are bullying off, than 5 yards from the ball. An ordinary bully in the circle shall not be taken nearer the goal line than 5 yards. The game will be restarted after each goal, and after half time, by a bully-off in the centre of the ground.

9. For a goal to be scored the ball must be hit by an attacker in his opponents' striking circle or must glance off the stick of an attacker in his opponents' striking circle and must pass entirely over the goal line, between the goal posts, and under the cross-bar. If the ball is not struck by an attacker or is not glanced off his stick in his opponents' circle, no goal can be

scored. If the ball goes off one or more than one defender's stick or person through the goal, it having been struck or glanced by an attacker in the circle, a goal is scored. If anything has happened to the goal fixtures but in the opinion of the referee the ball would have passed through the goal if everything had been in place, a goal will be given.

10. A player is off-side if there are fewer than three of his opponents between him and his opponents' goal unless (a) he is in his own half of the ground, where he cannot be off-side, (b) the ball was last touched or hit by one of his opponents, or by one of his own team, who is nearer his opponents' goal line than he is himself.

A player who is off-side must not attempt to play the ball or to interfere with any of his opponents who may try to hit the ball until the ball has been played by one of his opponents. A player shall not be penalized for merely being off-side unless in the opinion of the umpire, he is, by this position, gaining some advantage, or influencing the play of an opponent. If he attempts to play the ball or to take part in the game while off-side then a free hit shall be given against him, on the spot where the breach occurred. A player who is off-side shall not be put on-side by reason of the ball having touched or glanced off the stick or person of an opponent. Otherwise a player shall be put on-side, if he be in an off-side position, as soon as the ball has been definitely played by an opponent. If the ball rebound off a goal-post or cross-bar it shall be deemed to have been played.

11. The ball may be stopped with the hand or foot or may be caught, but if caught must not be grasped but must be dropped immediately so as to fall perpendicularly to the ground. If the hand or foot are used to stop the ball the ball must be stopped dead. If the foot is used to stop the ball it must be removed immediately. If the ball strikes any part of the body

and goes off in any direction, or if it is stopped with the hand and goes off in any direction, a breach is committed and a free hit shall be given against the offender. The ball may not be picked up, carried, kicked, thrown, knocked on or back, except with the stick. The goalkeeper shall be allowed to kick the ball in his own circle. He shall not be penalized if in stopping the ball with his hand it does not fall perpendicularly.

12. The flat side of the stick only may be used for striking the ball, and no player may take any part in the game unless his stick is in his hand. There shall be no charging, pushing, striking at or hooking of an opponent's stick or holding of an opponent's stick with the stick. The penalty in all cases in ordinary play is a free hit against the offender.

13. A player shall not obstruct by interposing his body between an opponent and the ball, or by so turning round that he bring himself between an opponent and the ball when the latter is within striking distance of the ball. A player shall not obstruct with his stick or bring his stick between his opponent and the ball from the left side when his opponent is within striking distance of the ball. The penalty in ordinary play is a free hit against the offender.

14. When striking at the ball no part of the stick shall be raised above the shoulder either at the beginning or at the end of the stroke nor may a ball above the height of a player's shoulder be stopped in the air by any part of the stick, nor may a player in the act of approaching the ball raise any part of his stick above his shoulder. The penalty in ordinary play shall be a free hit against the offender at the spot where the breach occurred.

15. *Corner.* A player of the attacking team shall have a hit from a point on the side line or on the goal line not more than three yards from the corner flag. When such a hit is taken, the feet and sticks of the defending team shall all be behind

the goal line and no player of the defending team shall be closer than five yards to the player who is taking the hit. The feet and sticks of all members of the attacking team shall be outside the striking circle, in the field of play. When the ball is hit by the player taking the corner hit to a member of his own team, the ball must be stopped, not necessarily absolutely motionless, before it can be hit towards the opponents' goal. If the ball first touch the person or stick of a defender before being stopped a goal may be scored without stopping the ball. The player taking the corner hit may not hit the ball again until it has touched the person or stick of another player. A corner hit is given when the ball glances off the stick or person of a player of the defending team and goes over the goal line (except where a goal is scored as provided in rule 9), or where in the opinion of the referee the ball is *unintentionally* sent over the goal line by one of the defending team who is in his own twenty-five, unless a goal has been scored.

16. *Penalty Corner.* A penalty corner shall be taken from any point on the goal line on either side of the goal at a distance of not less than 10 yards from the nearest goal post. The rules for the penalty corner hit are the same as those for the corner hit.

A penalty corner is given when in the opinion of the referee the ball is *intentionally* sent behind the goal line by any player of the defending team from any part of the field, unless a goal has been scored. This includes the goalkeeper.

A penalty corner is also given when any breach of the rules is committed by any member of the defending team in the striking circle. This includes the goalkeeper. If the goalkeeper gives sticks,¹ a penalty corner shall be given against his team.

17. No player shall intentionally so hit the ball that it rises into the air. The scoop stroke shall be allowed, unless in the opinion of the referee it is dangerous or likely to lead to

¹ i.e. commits a breach under rule 14.

dangerous play. The ball may be hit while in the air so long as the stick is not raised above the shoulder. The penalty is a free hit against the offender.

18. When a free hit is being taken the ball shall be motionless on the ground and no other player shall be within 5 yards of the player who is taking the hit. If a player seems to be waiting within this distance to waste time the hit may be taken. After taking a free hit the striker may not take part in the game until the ball has been touched or hit by some other player. In taking a free hit the ball must be hit or pushed along the ground. The scoop stroke is not allowable. The ball must be stationary when it is hit. The penalty for hitting a moving ball is a free hit to the other side.

19. When the ball passes entirely over the side line it shall be rolled in along the ground with an underhand motion of the hand. It is not permissible to throw the ball through the air nor to bounce it. It shall be rolled in from the place where it went out by a member of the opposing team to that whose member last hit or touched the ball. While the ball is being rolled in no player shall stand or have his stick within seven yards of the side line. The player who is rolling the ball in shall have his feet and stick completely behind the side line. The ball may be rolled in any direction. The player who has rolled the ball in shall not play the ball again until it has been touched or hit by another player.

If there is any breach of this rule by the player who is rolling in, another roll in shall be taken by a member of the opposing team.

20. If the ball is sent over the goal line by one of the attacking team and a goal is not scored, or if it is, in the opinion of the referee, sent over unintentionally by one of the defending team who is not in his own twenty-five then the ball shall be brought at right angles from the place where it went over the goal line

to a distance of twenty-five yards and there bullied off. All players shall be on-side when the bully is taken, that is, nearer their own goal line than the ball.

21. *A Penalty Bully.* A penalty bully shall be given when in the opinion of the referee, if the breach of rules had not occurred, a goal would probably have been scored, and especially in the case of deliberate breaches of rules, when if such breach had not occurred a goal would probably have been scored. A penalty bully may be given in the case of a *deliberate* breach of the rules by the defending team in the circle even if the question of a goal being scored is more uncertain.

The bully shall be taken by the offender or by any other member of the defending team if the offender has been ordered off the field or is incapacitated, and by any member of the attacking team, on the spot where the breach occurred. All other players shall remain beyond the nearer 25 yards line until the penalty bully has been completed.

If during the bully, the ball pass wholly over the goal line which is within the striking circle, but not between the goal posts, off the stick or person of the offender the bully shall be taken again.

If the ball pass between the goal posts a goal shall be scored. In all other cases as soon as the ball has passed wholly outside the striking circle the game shall be re-started by a bully on the centre of the nearer 25 yards line.

For any breach by the defender the attacking team shall be given a penalty goal. For any breach by the attacker the defending team shall be given a free hit.

22. If the ball strike a referee it shall remain in play. If the ball become lodged in the pads of a goalkeeper or in the clothing of any player the referee shall suspend the game and shall restart it by a bully on the spot where the incident occurred, provided that in the circle no bully shall take place within five

yards of the goal line. The referee's decisions are final. The referee should not give a penalty unless there is an advantage to the side to whom he is giving the penalty. The object of a penalty is to penalize. If pulling up for a breach of rules and giving a free hit does not confer an advantage on the side to whom the hit is given, the referee should not give the penalty.

The referee has power to remove players from the field for rough play and misconduct. Players, except in grave cases, should be warned first and then, if persistent in rough play, should be suspended from further participation in the game.

ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL

1. The game is to be played by eleven players on each side.
2. The usual size of the ground is 115 yards by 75 yards. The minimum length is 100 yards and the maximum length is 130 yards. The minimum width 50 yards and the maximum width 100 yards.
3. The goals shall be upright posts fixed on the goal lines equidistant from the corner flags. The distance between them shall be 8 yards and there shall be a cross-bar between them 8 feet above the ground. The maximum width of goal posts and cross-bar shall be 5 inches.
4. The goal area is an area bounded by lines 6 yards long drawn at right angles to the goal line at a distance of 6 yards from each goal post and by a line joining these two lines drawn parallel to the goal line.
5. The penalty area is an area bounded by lines 18 yards long drawn at right angles to the goal line at a distance of 18 yards from each goal post and by a line joining these lines drawn parallel to the goal line.
6. The circumference of the ball shall not be less than 27 inches nor more than 28 inches.

7. The duration of the game shall be 90 minutes unless otherwise mutually agreed on.

8. The winner of the toss shall have the option of choice of sides or of taking the kick-off.

9. The game shall be commenced by a place kick from the centre of the field of play. The ball shall be kicked in the direction of the opponents' goal line. No opponent shall come within 10 yards of the ball until it has been kicked off, nor shall any player of either side pass the centre of the ground in the direction of his opponents' goal line until the ball has been kicked off.

10. Ends shall be changed at half-time. The interval at half-time shall be of 5 minutes' duration. After a goal is scored the losing side shall kick-off from the centre of the ground and after half-time the ball shall be kicked off by the opposite side from that which kicked off at the beginning of the game.

11. A goal is scored when the whole of the ball has passed between the goal posts under the cross-bar provided that it has not been thrown, knocked on or carried by any player of the attacking side.

12. The ball is out of play when the whole of it has crossed the goal line or touch-line either on the ground or in the air. It is in play if it rebounds into the field from a goal post, cross-bar or corner flag.

13. When the ball has crossed the touch-line a player of the opposite side to that which played it last shall throw it in from the point on the touch-line where it went out. The player throwing the ball in must stand on the touch-line facing straight on to the field of play and shall throw the ball in over his head with both hands in any direction without raising his heels from the ground. The ball shall be in play when thus thrown in but a goal may not be scored from a throw in, and the player who has thrown in the ball may not play it again until it has been

played by some other player. The penalty for an improper throw in, is a throw given to the opposite side.

14. When a player plays the ball any player of the same side who at such time is nearer to his opponents' goal line is off-side and may not touch the ball nor in any way interfere with an opponent nor take part in the game in any way until the ball has again been played unless there are at that time at least three of his opponents between him and their goal line. A player is not off-side when the ball is kicked off from goal, when a corner kick is taken, when the ball has been last played by an opponent or when he is himself within his own half of the field at the time when the ball is played by any member of his own side. The penalty for being off-side is a free kick to the opposite side.

15. When the ball is played behind the goal line by a player of the attacking side, it shall be kicked off by some member of the defending side from a spot within that half of the goal area nearest the point where the ball went out of play. But if the ball is played behind by a member of the defending team a member of the attacking team shall kick the ball from a spot within one yard of the nearest corner flag. In either case an opponent shall not be allowed within 10 yards of the ball until it is kicked.

16. A player may not handle the ball intentionally; that is he may not play the ball with hand or arm. The goalkeeper may within his own penalty area use his hands but shall not carry the ball. He may take two steps only while holding the ball or bouncing it on his hand. The penalty for breach of this rule is a free kick to the opposite side. A breach by the goalkeeper is penalized with a free kick, not with a penalty kick. The free kick shall be taken from outside the penalty area, if a breach by the goalkeeper occurs in the penalty area.

17. Neither tripping, kicking, striking nor jumping at a

player shall be allowed. The penalty is a free kick to the opposite side.

18. A player shall not use his hands to hold or push an opponent. Obstruction by means of extending the arm or arms is not allowed. The penalty is a free kick to the opposite side.

19. The goalkeeper shall not be charged except when he is holding the ball or obstructing an opponent or when he has passed outside the goal area.

20. The goalkeeper may be changed during the game but notice of such change must be given to the referee. If the goalkeeper is changed without notice being given to the referee and the new goalkeeper handles the ball in the penalty area a penalty kick shall be given against him.

21. Charging is permissible but must not be violent or dangerous. A player shall not be charged from behind unless he is intentionally obstructing an opponent.

22. When a free kick has been awarded no opponent may approach within 10 yards of the ball until it has been kicked, unless he is standing on his own goal line. The ball must be at least rolled over before it shall be considered to have been played. The kicker shall not play the ball a second time until it shall have been played by another player. The ball must be stationary when the kick is taken. The penalty is a free kick to the opposite side.

23. A goal may be scored from a free kick which is awarded for tripping, kicking, striking, jumping at an opponent, handling, holding, pushing an opponent, illegal charging of an opponent. From a free kick awarded for any other infringement a goal cannot be scored.

24. When a free kick is given for any infringement of rules, the kick shall be taken on the spot where the infringement occurred. Free kicks shall be the penalty for the infringements mentioned in rule 23 and also for off-side, carrying by the

goalkeeper, illegal charging of the goalkeeper, infringement of rule for taking a free kick, playing the ball before it has reached the ground when dropped by the referee (see rule 26) when a player is sent off the field. A referee should refrain from awarding a free kick even when an infringement has occurred if it is to the advantage of the side to whom the free kick should be awarded to go on without it. A free kick given as a penalty for an infringement in the penalty area shall be taken outside the penalty area.

25. In the event of an intentional infringement of rules 16, 17, 18, 21 by a member of the defending team within the penalty area, a penalty kick shall be awarded to the opposing side from a spot opposite the centre of the goal and distant 12 yards from the goal. While a penalty kick is being taken all players with the exception of the player taking the kick and the opponents' goalkeeper shall be outside the penalty area. The goalkeeper shall not advance beyond his goal line. The ball must be kicked forward. A goal may be scored from a penalty kicked, but when the kicker has once kicked the ball he may not play it again until it has been played by some other player. If when a penalty kick is taken the ball passes between the goal posts under the cross-bar, a goal shall be given even though there may have been infringements of rules by the defending side. In the event of infringement of rules during the taking of the kick by the attacking side a free kick shall be given to the defending side.

26. If the game is temporarily stopped for any reason the ball having gone neither out nor behind a goal line the referee shall drop the ball where it was when play was suspended, and it shall be in play when it has touched the ground. Players may not play the ball until it touches the ground. If the ball goes out or behind a goal line before it has been played by any player after being dropped by the referee, the referee shall drop it again.

27. The duty of the referee is to enforce the rules and decide all disputed points. He shall keep a record of the game and shall act as timekeeper. He shall allow for time wasted for any reason, but may stop the game by reason of darkness, interference by spectators or other cause when he may deem necessary. If the conduct of any player is violent or dangerous the referee may without warning order such player to leave the field.

RUGGER TOUCH

1. Size of field: 180 feet by 80 feet with a gallery 15 feet wide at each end. A line should be drawn across the centre of the ground. This is the size of the ground for 7 or fewer players. If teams consist of 11 players then the ground should be the same size as a hockey field. The galleries at each end will be the same width as in the smaller ground, viz. 15 feet.

2. Players are divided into forwards, half- and full-backs. If there are seven players, there should be 3 forwards, 2 halves and 2 full-backs.

3. The ball used shall be a rugby football.

4. To start the game the referee shall bounce the ball on the ground, in the centre of the field. The ball is then in play.

5. Players may catch the ball and run with it. They may not snatch the ball from the hands of another player, push players or in any way handle opponents. As soon as they are touched they must pass the ball or drop it. A player must pass the ball as soon as he is touched by an opponent. He may not take more than two steps after being touched before passing the ball.

6. The ball is to be passed by throwing it with the hands. A player may not carry the ball with any part of his body. The ball cannot be batted with one hand. It must be cleanly caught and passed by throwing. A player may not pass the ball and catch it again himself until it has been touched by some other player.

7. If the ball is lying on the ground it must be picked up and passed. It cannot be batted or rolled along the ground with the hand.

8. A goal is scored when any player succeeds in reaching the far side of his opponents' gallery and succeeds in placing the ball on the ground on the far side of the back line of that gallery without being touched. To score a goal the ball must be placed on the ground with both hands. The ball cannot be thrown down on to the ground and cannot be placed in position with one hand. The ball may be placed on the ground anywhere on the far side of the back line of the opponents' gallery, within an imaginary extension of the side lines.

9. No player may enter his opponents' gallery unless he have the ball in his possession. If he do so he is off-side and a penalty throw will be given against him. If a player is touched while in his opponents' gallery he must at once drop the ball.

10. In the case of any breach of the rules a free throw will be given to the offending player's opponents.

11. If the ball goes behind the goal line without a goal being scored it will be thrown into play by one of the defending full-backs. If the ball or a player carrying the ball goes over the side line, it will be thrown into play by one of the opponents of the player who last touched it or who carried it out. It shall be thrown in at the place where it went out.

CRICKET

LAWS REVISED BY THE MARYLEBONE CLUB,¹ 1884-1932

1. A match is played between two sides of eleven players each, unless otherwise agreed to; each side has two innings,

¹ Reprinted from *The Laws of Cricket*, 1933 (price 3d.), by the kind permission of the Cricket Press, 25 Temple Chambers, Temple Avenue, London, E.C.4.

taken alternately, except in the case provided for in Law 53. The choice of innings shall be decided by tossing.

2. The score shall be reckoned by runs. A run is scored :—

1st. So often as the batsmen after a hit, or at any time while the ball is in play, shall have crossed, and made good their ground, from end to end.

2nd. For penalties under Laws 16, 34, 41, and allowances under 44.

Any run or runs so scored shall be duly recorded by scorers appointed for the purpose. The side which scores the greatest number of runs wins the match. No match is won unless played out or given up, except in the case provided in Law 45.

3. Before the commencement of the match, two Umpires shall be appointed; one for each end.

4. The Ball shall weigh not less than five ounces and a half, nor more than five ounces and three-quarters. It shall measure not less than eight and thirteen-sixteenths inches, nor more than nine inches in circumference. At the beginning of each innings either side may demand a new ball.

5. The Bat shall not exceed four inches and one quarter in the widest part; it shall not be more than thirty-eight inches in length.

6. The Wickets shall be pitched opposite and parallel to each other at a distance of twenty-two yards. Each wicket shall be not less than eight inches nor more than nine inches in width, and consist of three stumps, with two bails upon the top. The stumps shall be of equal and of sufficient size to prevent the ball from passing through, not less than twenty-seven inches nor more than twenty-eight inches out of the ground. The bails shall be each not less than four inches nor more than four inches and a half in length, and when in position, on the top of the stumps, shall not project more than half an inch above them. The position of wickets shall not be changed

during a match, unless the ground between them become unfit for play, and then only by consent of both sides.

7. The Bowling Crease shall be in a line with the stumps : eight feet eight inches in length ; the stumps in the centre ; with a Return Crease at each end, at right angles behind the wicket.

8. The Popping Crease shall be marked four feet from the wicket, parallel to it, and be deemed unlimited in length.

9. The batsman may beat the ground with his bat to smooth it, and the batsman or bowler may use sawdust to enable him to obtain a proper foothold.

10. The ball must be bowled ; if thrown or jerked, either Umpire shall call 'No Ball'.

11. The Bowler shall deliver the ball with one foot on the ground behind the bowling crease, and within the return crease, otherwise the Umpire shall call 'No Ball'.

12. If the bowler shall bowl the ball so high over or so wide of the wicket that, in the opinion of the Umpire, it is not within reach of the Striker, the Umpire shall call 'Wide Ball'.

13. The ball shall be bowled in Overs of six balls from each wicket alternately. When six balls have been bowled, and the ball is finally settled in the bowler's or wicket-keeper's hands, the Umpire shall call 'Over'. Neither a 'No Ball' nor a 'Wide Ball' shall be reckoned as one of the 'Over'.

14. The bowler shall be allowed to change ends as often as he pleases, provided only that he does not bowl two Overs consecutively in one innings.

15. The bowler may require the batsman at the wicket from which he is bowling to stand on that side of it which he may direct.

16. The Striker may hit a 'No Ball', and whatever runs result shall be added to his score : but he shall not be out from a 'No Ball', unless he be run out, or break Laws 26, 27, 29, 30. All runs made from a 'No Ball', otherwise than from the bat, shall

be scored 'No Balls', and if no run be made, one run shall be added to the score. From a 'Wide Ball' as many runs as are run shall be added to the score as 'Wide Balls', and if no run be otherwise obtained one run shall be added.

17. If the ball, not having been called 'Wide', or 'No Ball', pass the Striker without touching his bat or person, and any runs be obtained, the Umpire shall call 'Bye', but if the ball touch any part of the Striker's person (hand excepted), and any run be obtained, the Umpire shall call 'Leg Bye', such runs to be scored 'Byes' and 'Leg Byes' respectively.

18. At the beginning of the match, and of each innings, the Umpire at the bowler's wicket shall call 'Play'; from that time no trial ball shall be allowed to any bowler on the ground between the wickets, and when one of the batsmen is out, the use of the bat shall not be allowed to any person until the next batsman shall come in.

19. A batsman shall be held to be 'out of his ground' unless his bat in hand or some part of his person be grounded within the line of the Popping Crease.

20. The wicket shall be held to be 'down' when either of the bails is struck off, or, if both bails be off, when a stump is struck out of the ground.

THE STRIKER IS OUT :

21. If the wicket be bowled down, even if the ball first touch the Striker's bat or person :—'Bowled.'

An umpire would be justified in ruling that part of a bail had been 'struck off' if as a result of the wicket being hit any part of either bail has been disturbed from its original position on the top of the stumps.

22. Or, if the ball, from a stroke of the bat or hand, but not the wrist, be held before it touch the ground, although it be hugged to the body of the catcher :—'Caught.'

23. Or, if in playing at the ball, provided it be not touched

by the bat or hand, the Striker be out of his ground, and the wicket be put down by the wicket-keeper with the ball, or with hand or arm, with ball in hand :—‘Stumped.’

24. Or, if with any part of his person he stops the ball, which, in the opinion of the Umpire at the bowler’s wicket, shall have been pitched in a straight line from it to the Striker’s wicket, and would have hit it :—‘Leg before wicket.’

Note : The experimental amended l.b.w. law which is almost certain to become a permanent law of the game is :

The striker is out l. b. w. if, with any part of his person (except his hand) which is between wicket and wicket, he intercept a ball which, in the opinion of the umpire at the bowler’s wicket shall have been pitched in a straight line from the bowler’s wicket to striker’s wicket or shall have been pitched on the off-side of the striker’s wicket and would have hit it.

25. Or, if in playing at the ball, he hit down his wicket with his bat or any part of his person or dress :—‘Hit wicket.’

26. Or, if under pretence of running, or otherwise, either of the batsmen wilfully prevent a ball from being caught :—‘Obstructing the field.’

27. Or, if the ball be struck, or be stopped by any part of his person, and he wilfully strike it again, except it be done for the purpose of guarding his wicket, which he may do with his bat, or any part of his person, except his hands :—‘Hit the ball twice.’

EITHER BATSMAN IS OUT :

28. If in running, or at any other time, when the ball is in play, he be out of his ground, and his wicket be struck down by the ball after touching any fieldsman, or by the hand or arm, with ball in hand, of any fieldsman ; but the Striker may not be given out thus, unless the ball has touched the bat or hand when, in playing at a No Ball, he is out of his ground and the

wicket be put down by the wicket-keeper with the ball, or with hand or arm with ball in hand :—‘Run out.’

29. Or, if he touch with his hands or take up the ball while in play, unless at the request of the opposite side :—‘Handled the ball.’

30. Or, if he wilfully obstruct any fieldsman : ‘Obstructing the field.’

31. If the batsmen have crossed each other, he that runs for the wicket which is put down is out ; if they have not crossed, he that has left the wicket which is put down is out.

32. The Striker being caught, no run shall be scored. A batsman being run out, that run which was being attempted shall not be scored.

33 a. A batsman being out from any cause, the ball shall be ‘Dead.’

33 b. If the ball, whether struck with the bat or not, lodges in a batsman’s clothing, the ball shall become ‘Dead.’

34. If a ball in play cannot be found or recovered, any Fieldsman may call ‘Lost Ball’, when the ball shall be ‘Dead’; six runs shall be added to the score ; but if more than six runs have been run before ‘Lost Ball’ has been called, as many runs as have been run shall be scored.

35. After the ball shall have been finally settled in the wicket-keeper’s or bowler’s hand, it shall be ‘Dead’; but when the bowler is about to deliver the ball, if the batsman at his wicket be out of his ground before actual delivery, the said bowler may run him out ; but if the bowler throw at that wicket, and any run result, it shall be scored ‘No Ball’.

36. A batsman shall not retire from his wicket and return to it to complete his innings after another has been in, without the consent of the opposite side.

37. A substitute shall be allowed to field or run between wickets for any player who may, during the match, be incapacitated.

tated from illness or injury, but for no other reason, except with the consent of the opposite side.

38. In all cases where a substitute shall be allowed, the consent of the opposite side shall be obtained as to the person to act as substitute, and the place in the field which he shall take.

39. In case any substitute shall be allowed to run between wickets, the Striker may be run out if either he or his substitute be out of his ground. If the Striker be out of his ground while the ball is in play, that wicket which he has left may be put down and the Striker given out, although the other batsman may have made good the ground at that end, and the Striker and his substitute at the other end.

40. A batsman is liable to be out for any infringement of the Laws by his substitute.

41. The fieldsman may stop the ball with any part of his person, but if he wilfully stop it otherwise, the ball shall be 'Dead', and five runs added to the score; whatever runs may have been made, five only shall be added.

42. The wicket-keeper shall stand behind the wicket. If he shall take the ball for the purpose of stumping before it has passed the wicket, or if he shall incommode the Striker by any noise or motion, or if any part of his person be over or before the wicket, the Striker shall not be out, excepting under Laws 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30.

43. The Umpires are the sole judges of fair or unfair play, of the fitness of the ground, the weather, and the light for play; all disputes shall be determined by them, and if they disagree the actual state of things shall continue.

44. They shall pitch fair wickets, arrange boundaries where necessary, and the allowances to be made for them, and change ends after each side has had one innings.

45. They shall allow two minutes for each striker to come in, and ten minutes between each innings. When they shall

call 'Play', the side refusing to play shall lose the match.

46. They shall not order a batsman out unless appealed to by the other side.

N.B.—An appeal, 'How's that?' covers all ways of being out (within the jurisdiction of the Umpire appealed to), unless a specific way of getting out is stated by the person asking.

47. The Umpire at the bowler's wicket shall be appealed to before the other Umpire in all cases, except in those of stumping, hit wicket, run out at the Striker's wicket, or arising out of Law 42; but in any case in which an Umpire is unable to give a decision, he shall appeal to the other Umpire, whose decision shall be final.

48. If either Umpire be not satisfied of the absolute fairness of the delivery of any ball, he shall call 'No Ball'.

48 a. The Umpire shall take especial care to call 'No Ball' instantly upon delivery; 'Wide Ball' as soon as it shall have passed the Striker.

49. If either batsman run a short run, the Umpire shall call 'One Short', and the run shall not be scored.

50. After the Umpire has called 'Over', the ball is 'Dead', but an appeal may be made as to whether either batsman is out; such appeal, however, shall not be made after the delivery of the next ball, not after any cessation of play.

(Laws 51 and 52 are omitted.)

53. The side which bats first and leads by 150 runs in a match of three days or more, or by 100 runs in a two days' match, shall have the option of requiring the other side to follow their innings.

54. The In-side may declare their innings at an end in a match of three days or more, at any time on the second day; in a two days' match the captain of the batting side has power to declare his innings at a close at any time, but such declaration

may not be made on the first day later than one hour and forty minutes before the time agreed upon for drawing stumps ; in a one-day match at any time.

55. When there is no play on the first day of a three-day match Laws 53 and 54 shall apply as if the match were a two-day match, and if in a three-day match there is no play on the first two days, Laws 53, 54, and Law 1 'One-Day Matches' shall apply as if the match were a one-day match. When there is no play on the first day of a two-day match, Law 1 'One-Day Matches' shall apply as if the match were a one-day match.

ONE-DAY MATCHES

1. The side which bats first and leads by 75 runs shall have the option of requiring the other side to follow their innings.

2. The match, unless played out, shall be decided by the first innings. Prior to the commencement of a match, it may be agreed :—That the over consists of 5 or 6 balls.

N.B.—A tie is included in the words 'Played out'.

VOLLEYBALL

1. The size of the ground shall be 60 feet by 30 feet. The size of the court may be modified to suit the number playing. The above dimension is for teams of six players a side. The court shall be bounded by well defined lines two inches in width, which two inches shall be included in the measurements of the court, and shall be at every point at least three feet from walls or other obstructions. A height of 15 feet above the court shall also be free from all obstructions.

2. A centre line shall be drawn, 2 inches in width, immediately under the net and parallel to it from side to side of the court. It is assumed that the centre line is extended indefinitely beyond the side lines.

3. A mark shall be made on the back line, at a place one-

12. Each server shall continue to serve until the referee calls 'Side Out'.

13. If the ball touches the net when it is being served, and goes over, 'Side Out' shall be called. If it touch any player before going over or go under the net or fall outside the opponents' court, 'Side Out' shall be called.

14. The ball may not be caught or held. It may not be hit with the closed fist. The hand must be open when the ball is hit. The ball must be cleanly hit. It may not be scooped, lifted or followed with the hand. It may be hit with both hands, but both hands must hit the ball at the same time.

15. A player shall not hit the ball twice successively. He may hit it and then hit it again after it has been hit or touched by another player. If the ball hit or touch any part of the person of a player above the hips it shall be counted as a hit by that player. If the ball touch the body below the hips a foul shall be given.

16. A ball touching the net and going over at any time during the course of the play, except during service, shall be good, and remain in play.

17. The ball must pass over the net between the markers over the side lines. A ball going over that part of the net which is outside the lines is not a legal return.

18. A ball may be recovered from the net by a player provided that he does not hit or touch the net in doing so.

19. The ball may be touched or hit only three times by one team before being returned over the net. That is, the third hit must send the ball over the net. The ball may be sent back by the first or second player to hit it. The ball may not touch the ground inside the court while in play. If it does so on the server's side it is 'Side Out'; if it does so on the striker's side it is a point to the server.

20. If a player serves when it is not his turn to do so, 'Side Out' shall be called and any points made on his service before the error was discovered shall not be counted.

21. No player shall touch the net with any part of his body while the ball is in play. If two players touch the net simultaneously, the ball shall be counted dead and served again.

22. No player shall reach over the net under any circumstances whatever.

23. No player shall reach under the net and touch the ball or a player of the opposing side when the ball is in play on that side. But when the ball is in play on his own side he may reach under the net with one or both hands as long as his feet remain in his own court.

24. No player shall touch the ground on the opposite side of the centre line from his own side of the court. Even if he does not touch the ground until after the ball has hit the ground a foul is given. No player may put his foot on the centre line nor in his opponents' court.

25. No player who is in a back position may run forward to the net to kill a ball; that is to smash it downwards into his opponents' court.

26. The ball is out when it touches any part of the ground or any object outside the court. A ball touching a boundary line is counted as in, except in service, when a ball touching a boundary line is counted out.

27. A game is won when either team scores a two-point lead with fifteen or more points.

28. If wind, sun or some other circumstance favours one court the team with the lesser score may request change of court as soon as the opposing team has scored eight points, but the service continues with the player who has just scored the eighth point. Only one change shall be permitted during a game.

APPENDIX
BASKETBALL

1. The size of the field shall be 90 feet by 50 feet.
2. The boundary lines shall be at least 3 feet away from any obstruction. There shall be a circle of 2 feet radius marked in the centre of the court. A short line 2 feet in length shall be marked 15 feet from the centre of each end line, parallel to the end line. The centre of this line shall be directly opposite the centre point of the end line. A free throw lane shall be marked as follows. Two lines shall be drawn at right angles to the end lines each from points 3 feet on each side of the centre point of the end line. These lines shall be 9 feet in length. A circle of 6 feet radius with the centre of the free throw line as centre shall be drawn to touch each of the lines drawn at right angles to the end line. The portion enclosed by those two lines and the circle so drawn shall be the free throw lane.
3. The size of backboards shall be 6 feet wide and 4 feet high. They shall be erected in an upright position at the centre point of the end lines.
4. The baskets shall be nets hung from metal rings of 18 inches inside diameter. They shall be so made that the ball is stopped momentarily as it passes through.
5. The rings with the attached nets shall be attached to the backboards at a point 1 foot from the bottom and 3 feet from either side of the backboard. The rings shall be parallel with the ground at a height of 10 feet above the ground and so fixed that the nearest point of the inside edge of the ring is 6 inches from the backboard.
6. The ball shall be not less than 30 inches nor more than 32 inches in circumference, and it shall weigh not less than 20 and not more than 23 ounces.
7. Each team shall consist of five players.
8. A goal is scored when the ball enters the basket from

above. When this is done from the field 2 points are counted. When it is done from a free throw, 1 point is counted.

9. A player is out of bounds when any portion of his body touches the boundary line or the ground outside the boundary line. The ball is out of bounds when any part of it touches the boundary line or any object outside the boundary line, or when it is touched by any player who is out of bounds. When the ball goes out of bounds it shall be thrown, bounced or rolled into the court by any opponent of the player who caused it to go out of bounds. The player who is putting it into the court shall stand out of bounds facing the spot where it went out of bounds. If there is doubt as to who sent the ball out of bounds, the referee shall put the ball into play at a spot facing the spot where the ball went out and three feet within the court, by tossing the ball into the air between two selected opponents. The ball is caused to go out by the last player touched by it before it goes out.

10. When two opposing players have one or both hands on the ball at the same time, or when a closely guarded player is withholding the ball from play, the ball is said to be held. The referee shall take possession of the ball, and the two players concerned shall face each other in an imaginary circle at the spot where the ball was held. The ball shall then be thrown into the air by the referee as at the centre, and in this way put into play.

11. The ball is thrown up at the centre at the beginning of the game and after half-time; after a goal has been made; after an illegal free throw has been made; after the ball has lodged in the supports of its basket, in the following manner. Each centre player shall stand with both feet in his half of the centre circle, with one hand behind his back and touching it. The hand shall remain in this position until the ball has been tapped by one or both players. The other players may take any position in the court which they wish to, provided they do not interfere in any way with the centre players. The referee shall toss the ball

straight up between the players to a height greater than that to which either of them can jump, so that it will drop between them. The ball must be tapped by one of the centres before being touched by any other player. If it drops to the ground without being touched by either player, the referee shall throw it up again. When the ball is tossed up by the referee at any place other than the centre the same procedure is adopted.

12. The ball may be thrown, bounced, batted, rolled, or dribbled in any direction.

13. A player shall not run with the ball, kick it, or strike it with the fists. Penalty : free throw.

14. A player shall not violate the rules for putting the ball in play by the referee either at the centre or elsewhere. Penalty : free throw.

15. No player shall touch the ball when it is being thrown in until it has crossed the boundary line, nor shall he allow any part of his person to be outside the boundary line and so interfere with the player throwing the ball in. Penalty : free throw.

16. No player, while taking a free throw for goal may pass the ball to another player. He must make a fair trial. Penalty : free throw.

17. No player must interfere with the ball or basket while the ball is on the edge of or in the basket. Penalty : free throw.

18. No player may make a second dribble without first having passed the ball to a second player. A dribble is made by a player sending the ball forward or in any direction by throwing, batting, bouncing or rolling it and touching it again before it is touched by another player. The instant the ball comes to rest in either one or both hands, or touches both hands simultaneously, the dribble ceases. A player may throw for goal after a legal dribble. Successive tries for goal shall not be considered a dribble. The ball may be batted in the air only once during a dribble. Penalty : free throw.

19. A player shall not hold, block, trip, charge, or push an opponent; he shall not use unnecessary roughness; or charge in and make bodily contact with an opponent who is one of two opposing players having one or both hands on the ball. Penalty: free throw. The offender shall also be charged with a personal foul. A player who has made four personal fouls shall be removed from the game.

20. A player may not charge into, push, hold or otherwise foul an opponent who is in the act of throwing for the basket. Penalty: two free throws and the offender shall be charged with a personal foul. The ball is dead after the first free throw is taken.

21. When a free throw is given the ball shall be placed upon the free throw line of the team entitled to the throw. The throw shall be made within ten seconds after the ball has been placed upon the line. If a goal is scored the ball is put into play again at the centre. If the goal is missed the ball continues in play. The free throw shall be taken from directly behind the free throw line. No other player except the one making the throw is allowed within the free throw line until the basket or backboard has been touched by the ball. No player is allowed to attempt in any way to disconcert the player making the throw. Penalty: If the foul is committed by a member of the team making the throw, the goal if made shall not count and if missed the ball shall be put in play at the centre. If by an opponent, the goal if made shall count, and if not made, another free throw shall be allowed.

22. When fouls are committed by both teams simultaneously, a double foul is called and free throws are given to each team. The ball is dead after the first throw is taken.

23. A player shall not throw for the basket if the ball is dead. Penalty: goal if made does not count.

24. A player may not take more than ten seconds in making a free throw. Penalty: goal if scored does not count.

25. A player must not cause the ball to go out of bounds, carry the ball into court from out of bounds, touch the ball after putting it in play from out of bounds until it has been touched by another player, hold the ball for more than five seconds out of bounds before putting it in play. Penalty: the ball goes to an opponent out of bounds to be thrown in.

26. A game is decided by the scoring of the most points in the playing time. The game shall consist of two halves of 20 minutes each with a half-time of 10 minutes.

27. Definitions:

Holding: Holding is personal contact with an opponent that interferes with the opponent's freedom of movement.

Running with the ball: Running with the ball is progressing more than one step in any direction while retaining possession of the ball.

Blocking: Blocking is impeding the progress of an opponent who has not the ball.

MINOR GAMES

HANDBALL

An excellent game to give exercise to 20 to 26 players.

A field 60 yards square is required. Players are divided into two teams of 10 to 13 players each. Goals four feet wide and seven feet high are made in the middle of the end line at each end of the field. The ball can be thrown or batted or punched with one hand or with both hands. It cannot be kicked or headed or sent forward with the body. Players may be charged as in football. There is no off-side. No one is allowed to run carrying the ball, but a player may run bouncing the ball on one hand. The ball may not be held after being caught for

more than three seconds. A player may bounce the ball, run after it, and bounce it again and so on.

If the ball goes out over the side lines it is to be thrown in by a player of the opposite side to that of the player last touching the ball before it went out. If the ball goes behind, that is over the goal lines, the ball is thrown into play by one of the defending team.

A goal is scored when the ball is thrown, batted, or punched through the goal under the cross-bar from any part of the field. When a goal is scored and at the beginning of play the referee throws the ball straight up into the air in the centre of the ground, and it is at once in play. An association football is used.

Points for play leaders to watch

1. To see that there is no holding or running with the ball.
2. To see that players change places every now and then, e.g. to see that the same player does not remain goalkeeper all the time.

This game is enjoyed equally by small and by big boys. Among small boys it is largely an individual affair but with bigger boys it can be made a good team game requiring considerable agility and skill in passing.

COLLARING

A ground is marked out, the size of which will depend on the number of players. For twenty or thirty players a ground about 40 to 50 yards wide and 50 to 60 yards long is needed. To commence the game two players stand in the middle of the ground and the rest at either end of the ground. They have to try to cross the ground without being caught. If the two players in the middle catch anyone they have to hold him long enough to pat him three times on the back, more or less vigorously.

The captured player then joins the two in the centre and helps them to capture others. The number in the middle thus steadily increases, and the number trying to cross decreases. The game goes on till all those trying to cross are caught. The last two to be caught then take the centre position for the next game.

If any player in trying to cross goes out of the ground over the side lines, or returns to the end which he has left he automatically becomes a prisoner and joins those in the centre. Players can try to cross the ground as often as they like and at any time.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that the captured player duly receives the three pats.
2. To see that any player who leaves his end and starts across the ground does not return to the end he has just left, and to watch for players crossing the side lines.

CHAIN COLLARING

As for the previous game a ground is marked out, but for this game a smaller ground is needed. The ground should not be more than 25 yards wide and 40 yards long for 20 players or so.

One player stands in the middle of the ground and the rest at one end. The one in the middle calls the name of one of the players, who immediately has to try to run across the ground to the other end without being tagged.¹ If he succeeds in so doing the centre player calls another name and so on. When the centre player succeeds in catching another player the two join hands. The first player goes on calling names but the two in the centre must not let go each other's hands. If in catching a player they do let go, their prisoner is allowed to go free. When they catch a third, the three join hands and so

¹ i.e. touched.

the chain in the middle gradually increases. Only the two end members of the chain can tag. The rest may try to stop those crossing until the outside ones come round, but a player is not caught until touched by one of the outside members of the chain. This gives those trying to cross a chance to try to break through the chain when it gets very big.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that the chain does not break when catching a player.
2. It may be necessary to modify the extent of the ground as the game progresses. The width of the ground may be increased as the length of the chain increases. It should never be too wide, as it is then difficult for the chain to have any success.

SMUGGLING

For 15 to 30 players.

The players are divided into parties. One is the defending party, and the other the attacking party. In the middle of the ground, which should be about the size of a football ground, with well defined boundaries, is a circle of diameter about 10 yards. The defending party are stationed in this ground and can go anywhere in the ground but not out of it nor into the circle in the middle. The attacking party are given a letter or some small object which they have to get into the circle in the middle of the ground. While they are out of sight of the defenders, this letter or object is given to one member of the party who then hides it carefully on his person. It is now the object of all the attackers to get into the circle without being captured. They can advance into the enemy's territory and retreat as they please. The defenders try to capture any of the attackers who try to reach the circle. An attacker must be

really caught as he has to be searched. He must not just be touched. He must be held. If he is held he must submit to being searched. When the defenders are satisfied that he is not carrying the message or object, he may be allowed to go through to the circle. If the defenders succeed in finding the letter or object, they win, and they then change places with the attacking party. If the party carrying the letter or object succeeds in getting the member who is carrying it through to the circle without it being captured by the defenders, then the attackers win and the defenders have to defend again.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that the defenders do not all congregate round the circle.
2. To see that the attackers realize the use of strategy, one player who has not got the message sacrificing himself with a big struggle to let the player with it slip through.
3. To see that when an attacker is held he submits to being searched.
4. To see that when a player reaches the circle he is not pulled out again.

The game need not be played on an ordinary playground. In fact the presence of trees or buildings adds to the interest. There must be clearly defined boundaries for the ground however.

END BALL

14 to 16 players.

A court is marked out, about 30 yards in length and 20 yards in width. This may be increased if the number of players is greater. Lines are drawn across the court at each end, 1 yard from each back line. The centre of the court is marked.

The players are divided into two equal teams. Three or four players from each team are stationed in the compartments at the ends of the court, those belonging to one party being in one compartment and those belonging to the other party being in the other one. These players may not go outside the compartment marked off, and may not put a foot over the front or back line. The rest of the players distribute themselves over the centre part of the court, the two captains facing each other at the centre spot. The object of the game is to get the ball into the hands of one of the players in the end compartments. This must be done by a proper pass and catch. If the ball is rolled along the ground or is not caught on the full no point is counted. No point is counted if the catcher in his efforts to catch the ball puts a foot over the line of the end compartment.

The game is started by the play leader throwing up the ball at the centre. The two captains are not allowed to touch it until it has reached the ground. Then the one who secures it passes it to another member of his team who passes it on to another and so on until it reaches a member of the team who is so placed that he can pass it to one of the catchers of his team in the end compartment. The members of the opposing team are at the same time trying to gain possession of the ball in order to pass it to one of their catchers. The players who are not in the compartments may move about the court as they wish. No player may hold the ball for more than two seconds, nor may any player run with the ball, or change his position while he is in possession of it. Each catch taken on the full by any one of the end catchers counts one point to his side. The team which first reaches 20 or some other fixed number of points, wins. When the ball is caught or when it goes behind, the play leader throws it up in the centre. When it goes out at the side it is thrown straight in by the play leader. Any infringement of the rules is penalized by a free throw from the

place where the infringement took place. During the game the catchers may change places with other members of their team so that all may have a turn at the more active part of the game.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that the players do not move with the ball.
2. To see that the catchers do not move out of their compartments.
3. To see that the ball is not held more than two seconds.
4. To teach the players to distribute themselves over the court so that they may be able to pass effectively.

THE SIEGE

20 to 30 players.

A ground about 40 feet by 40 feet is marked out. The size of the ground will depend on the number playing. Right round the outside of the ground a passage a yard wide is marked. This represents a wall and the inside enclosure represents a fort.

The players are divided into two parties one of which is the defending party and the other is the attacking party. The object of the attackers is to pull the defenders over the wall to the ground outside. When a defender has been pulled or carried right over the wall he joins the attackers and helps them. The defenders in their turn attempt to pull or carry the attackers over the wall into the fort. When this is done, the attacker joins the defenders.

The game is one of single combat. No player can be actually attacked by more than one player of the opposing side, although it is legitimate for more than one player to threaten another player of the opposing side and to feint and so distract attention

while another unexpectedly attacks. But when players come to grips it must be one against one.

No attacker is allowed to place both feet in the fort inside the wall. If he does so he is counted as captured and becomes a defender. Attackers may invade the fort as long as they hop on one foot. But they must keep one foot off the ground or on the wall. If an attacker is forced to put down the other foot while hopping in the fort he is counted as captured.

No defender is allowed to put both feet outside the wall. If he does so he is counted as captured and joins the attackers. He may hop, but must keep one foot off the ground or on the wall. The fort is captured when all the defenders are pulled out. The sides then change places.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that no player is grappled by two opposing players at the same time.
2. To see that 'hoppers' remain on one foot while in enemy territory.
3. To encourage the attackers to use strategy and combination.
4. To see that players are divided as evenly as possible with regard to strength.

IN THE POND

16 to 24 players.

Two parallel lines are drawn on the ground at a distance of five yards from each other. The space between these lines is the pond. The players are divided up into two equal teams which line up on each side of the pond. The play leader stands at one end of the pond. When he shouts 'In the pond' all the players of both sides jump into the pond. When he shouts 'Out of the pond' all jump backwards out of the pond. If any player does not jump right out of the pond he has to join the

other side. If he does not obey either order at once he has to join the other side. If when the players are out of the pond the play leader shouts 'Out of the pond' and anyone makes the slightest movement, he has to join the opposite side. Similarly if the players are in the pond and the play leader shouts 'In the pond', if anyone makes any movement he has to join the opposite side. The side with most players after a certain time wins.

Points for the play leader

1. To keep a sharp look-out for anyone who moves.
2. To give his commands quickly.

ONE MISSING

10 to 12 players.

The apparatus required is a number of Indian clubs or small flags or bottles or anything that will stand up.

The number of players must be one more than the number of Indian clubs. The players are lined up with their backs to the line of clubs. At the command 'Quick march' the players march forward. They keep on marching until the leader blows his whistle. At the sound of the whistle the players all rush back and try to secure possession of a club. One player will be left without a club. This player then falls out. The players are again lined up with their backs to the line of clubs which are set up in line, again one club being left out. The same procedure is gone through, and so on until only one player is left. This player is the winner. If there are a large number of players, two clubs may be removed at a time. If clubs are not available, anything that will serve the purpose, such as bottles, may be used.

Points for the play leader

1. To see that all the players march away properly in line. There will be found a tendency on the part of some to go slowly and lag behind.
2. To see that there is no looking round by any players as the players march away.
3. To vary the distance the players are allowed to go before the whistle is blown.

KABADDI

Number of players, 18.

1. The ground is a circle on level ground of 15 feet radius. The circle is divided into two parts by a diameter.

2. The circumference and the diameter lines should be clearly marked.

3. Each team consists of nine players.

4. The winners of the toss choose either one semicircle or the first kabaddi.

5. The members of each team remain in their respective semicircles.

6. During play no player is allowed to cross the boundary lines of his semicircle. The penalty for a breach of this rule is a point to the other side. A player may have one foot across the line but he is counted out as soon as the foot that is inside is raised from the ground.

7. The time for the game is half an hour. This includes a four minutes' interval. The teams change sides at half-time.

8. Kabaddies are called in turn, but any member of the team whose turn it is may run. As soon as a player re-enters his own semicircle or puts a foot on the centre line the kabaddi is finished and his opponents take their turn.

9. The team that scores most points in the time, wins.

10. A player scores a point for his team if he succeeds in getting back to his semicircle after touching some opponent (with the hand only) or after pushing some opponent out of his semicircle provided that he holds his breath all the time. He will say that word 'kabaddi' over and over to show that he is holding his breath. If he is caught by one of his opponents before getting back to his own semicircle and held out of his semicircle until he has to draw breath, then his opponents score a point. He may be tackled by one opponent only. An attempt by a player to touch an opponent is known as a kabaddi.

11. If an attacker (one who is repeating 'kabaddi') and one who is trying to hold him both go out of the semicircle, the referee will give a common point.

12. When a player who is trying to come back to his own side touches the centre line, he is counted as having reached his semicircle. If his opponents touch him as or after he crosses the line, they get a point.

13. To throw or lift an opponent off the ground and throw him, to squeeze his throat or to catch him by the hair are fouls. The penalty is a point against the offender.

14. The referee may turn a player off the field if he considers the offence dangerous, or for disobedience.

15. A player cannot be immediately chased by his opponents as he returns from a kabaddi. His opponents must wait a few seconds before taking their turn.

16. Towards the end when time is almost up, the referee asks the team who took the first kabaddi to take their last one. Then a kabaddi from the other side finishes the game.

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